

Michigan Univ. English language institute

LESSONS
in
VOCABULARY

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1950

Volume I

from

An Intensive Course in
E N G L I S H
for Latin-American Students

by

The Research Staff of the English Language Institute
CHARLES C. FRIES, *Director*

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English Language Institute
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Introduction.....	ii
Introductory Lesson.....	ix
Lesson I	
Lexical Stress Markings.....	1
Introductions.....	1
Greetings.....	1
Expressions of Pardon.....	2
Lesson II	
Meals.....	4
Words of frequency.....	5
The expressions <u>in the morning</u> , <u>in the afternoon</u> , <u>in the evening</u> , <u>at night</u>	6
Conversation.....	6
Lesson III	
A Dinner Menu.....	8
Ordering Food in a Restaurant.....	9
Flavors, Consistencies, Tastes.....	10
The words <u>when?</u> and <u>where?</u> ; <u>what?</u> and <u>whom?</u>	11
The words <u>here</u> and <u>there</u>	12
Lesson IV	
<u>In</u> , <u>on</u> , <u>at</u> in expressions of addresses.....	13
Addresses.....	13
Telephone Numbers.....	14
The expressions <u>once</u> , <u>twice</u> , <u>three times</u> , etc.....	14
The word <u>ago</u> . The time words <u>minute</u> , <u>hour</u> , <u>day</u> , <u>month</u> , <u>week</u>	15
The word <u>then</u>	16
The use of <u>every</u> and <u>all</u> in expressions of time.....	16
The Ordinal Numbers.....	18
Cardinals.....	19
Lesson V	
Money.....	20
Saying quantities of money.....	21
The word <u>lend</u> ...to, and borrow...from.....	21
The expressions <u>this morning</u> , <u>this noon</u> , <u>this afternoon</u> , <u>this evening</u> , <u>tonight</u>	21
Words of Place.....	22
Words of Direction.....	23
Conversations.....	23
Supplement.....	24
Lesson VI	
Say and Tell.....	25
Colors.....	25
Conversation.....	25
The words <u>talk</u> , <u>speak</u> , and <u>ask</u> , <u>answer</u>	25
The words <u>near</u> , <u>far from</u> , and <u>up</u> , <u>down</u>	26
The word <u>in</u>	27

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Lesson VII

The words <u>for</u> , <u>until</u> , <u>before</u> , <u>after</u> , <u>afterwards</u>	29
Relative points on a scale.....	30
Conversations.....	37

Lesson VIII

What time is it?.....	38
Other expressions of time.....	38
The time words <u>fast</u> and <u>slow</u>	39
Addition of syllables.....	39
Supplement.....	42

Lesson IX

Describing people.....	43
<u>Can</u> (<u>could</u>), <u>may</u> , <u>must</u> , <u>might</u>	44

Lesson X

Practice on conversations.....	48
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INTRODUCTION

I. ASSUMPTIONS

Certain basic assumptions served as guides in the formation of these lessons in vocabulary.¹

First, these lessons are primarily aimed toward those students of English whose native language is Spanish. Many of the particular points touched upon are included because a speaker of Spanish can be predicted to have difficulty with them. For example, Lesson VII includes the expression as far as contrasted with until solely because the Spanish speaker does not have distinct forms in his language for the two situations covered by the English expressions. He uses hasta in both situations.

Viajaron hasta Chicago.

Viajaron hasta las seis.

They traveled as far as
Chicago.

They traveled until six o'clock.

Unless explained and practiced, this results in such sentences as "He traveled until Chicago!" This does not preclude the use of the materials for students with other language backgrounds. The lessons will, however, contain much that is unnecessary to those who speak languages other than Spanish, and will omit items that are necessary to those of other language backgrounds. They are, to that extent less efficient for those persons. It is assumed then, that the users of these lessons will have Spanish as their native language or that the teacher will make the necessary adaptation for students of other linguistic backgrounds.

Second, the lessons are not aimed at rank beginners. They are rather aimed at the average student of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan, a student who has had some training in English but whose experience is still limited. Hence, it is assumed that the student will have had contact with many items before beginning these lessons.

¹For the theory behind the lessons in Vocabulary, see Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Chapter IV, "The Words: Mastering Vocabulary Content."

Third, the vocabulary lessons treat in general, the lexical matters of English. There are, however, a few matters that could equally well have been treated in the grammar materials. It is assumed that these lessons will be used in conjunction with the correlative texts in grammar and pronunciation developed by the English Language Institute.

Fourth, the mastering of the sound system and the structural system has paramount importance in the beginning stages of language study. It is assumed that the burden of learning the lexical meanings of a great number of words will provide an unnecessary complication until real progress has been made in grasping the sound and structural system. The vocabulary in this first volume is, as a result, limited.

II. SELECTION OF MATERIALS

The problem of selecting materials for lessons in vocabulary is quite different from the problem of selecting suitable pronunciation or grammar materials. The English language has only some thirty-nine significant sound contrasts in a limited number of combinations. After a valid analysis has been made, the problem of pronunciation teaching is not so much one of selecting items to teach as it is one of deciding upon order and emphasis within a limited system. Likewise the grammatical patterns of English are limited in number. In the case of vocabulary, however, even our large unabridged dictionaries do not include the complete lexicon of English. No course in English can possibly aim at the grasp of the entire lexicon of English as its goal. The first great problem in forming vocabulary texts is that of selecting what items to teach.

One can conceivably use the various frequency lists to establish a working vocabulary for the foreign student. There are some difficulties here, however. First, most frequency lists are based on counts of written English. We cannot assume that the vocabulary of written English is the

same as the vocabulary of spoken English. One has only to look at any newspaper to observe the difference. When one probes a bit further, he finds that many counts are based on spelling similarities alone. These counts lump together all kinds of words. Frequently different parts of speech are counted together. For example, the word September in the Thorndike-Lorge Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words, is given the frequency A, indicating that the word appears between 50 and 100 times per million words. The word May, however, has a frequency of AA, 100 or more occurrences per million words. May is listed as having a higher frequency rating than September. This difference of use of two near-equivalent words surprises us until we discover that the frequency of May also includes the so-called modal auxiliary uses of the same spelling.² Methods which, like Basic English, purport to use vocabulary of a few hundred words give a false impression, for the number of lexical meanings involved in those few hundred words is many times the number of words listed. And when one discovers, as C. C. Fries has pointed out, that the 500 most frequent words in English have 14,070 different meanings listed in the Oxford English Dictionary, the use of frequency lists seems to have little validity, at least in the beginning phases of vocabulary teaching.

Even if one attempts to count meanings, the problem of deciding which meanings to teach remains a knotty one. The borderline between two meanings of the same spelling form is not always easy to delineate. For instance notice the various meanings of in in the examples below: (See Lesson VI.)

- a) The pencil is in the desk. (The pencil is contained by the desk.)
- b) He arrived in June. (He arrived during the month of June.)
- c) They persisted in their argument. (They continued their argument.)
- d) He broke in his new pipe. (He prepared his pipe for regular smoking.)

²The problem of counting meaning lies at the basis of the "Semantic Count" on which Thorndike and Lorge began work in 1934. For a more comprehensive discussion of word lists than the above, see C. C. Fries and A. Aileen Traver, English Word Lists, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1940.

In view of this perhaps unsolvable problem, these texts approach vocabulary selection from a different point of view. The frequency of any item is made subordinate to the frequency and usefulness of a situation area. The conversations in the first ten lessons are based on the collected opinions of a number of experienced teachers in the English Language Institute as to what these important areas are. The teachers agreed that the following areas should have a high priority in teaching: a) The formulas of greeting, b) food, c) numbers, d) money, e) buying things, f) time, and g) the human body.

Some items have a somewhat wider use, not limited to any one area. These extra-area words are also included. In these first ten lessons, for example, are found in, on, at, in expressions of time and place, some function words of place and direction, and suffixes -er, -ful, and -able -ible.

The large body of words which Spanish and English have in common made obligatory the use of cognate words. These are presented in regular correspondence patterns of form in an introductory lesson. The most frequent patterns of correspondence were gleaned from the Institute Cognate List, a list of some 1600 items, and are presented with examples. Some recurrent false cognates are also included.

III. TECHNIQUES

A. Presentation techniques. Lexical items "mean" the situation in which they are used.³ The task of the teacher is that of recreating that situation, and attaching lexical items to the experience of the student rather than to his native language, for it is extremely doubtful if two

³C. C. Fries, Op. cit., pp. 43.

words in different languages are ever used in precisely the same circumstances.⁴

The situation may be recreated in various ways. One method that is useful is that of pictures, cut from magazines, or sketched on the blackboard.

Another is the verbal description of experience, using words that are already known to the students. In this connection the use of self-defining sentences is helpful; sentences such as:

Class is at 8. Mary arrived at 8:10. She was late.
Class is at 8. John arrived at 7:50. He was early.

Here, the meaning of the underlined words is clear from the other words in the utterances.

Actions by the teacher are useful to a limited extent. In teaching the place meanings of in and on a piece of chalk held alternately in the closed hand and on the open hand can be used to demonstrate one phase of their meanings.

Explanations with cognates are useful. Here there is an attaching to the experience of the student through his own language, and there is always the danger that the student's language will obscure the explanation, but, handled carefully, explanations in "cognate" are effective.

⁴Spanish banco, for example, is often equated with English bank. To a certain extent this is true, but one must be very careful in equating it in such a manner. If English bank is used in situations of money, the Spanish banco is one equivalent. If, however, a bank of a river is meant, Spanish uses orilla. On the other hand, banco is also used in Spanish in situations which English would require the word bench.

B. Practice Techniques. Explanation by itself is insufficient. Every effort must be made to practice the meanings taught, in order to reduce them to the habit level. There are many different ways to practice meanings. Some of those found most useful are:

1. Conversation dialogs. These are helpful in direct proportion to their usefulness in ordinary conversation. In general, conversation dialogs should describe certain recurrent situations--situations that occur again and again, greetings, buying things, answering questions about addresses, etc. If laboratory facilities are available, dialogs may be recorded for student listening. They should be memorized.

2. Oral Meaning Pattern Practice.⁵ These practices are conversations rigidly controlled by the teacher, and repeated by the student until the material practiced has become part of the complex of language habits of the student.

a) Simple substitution. Here the student supplies the item being practiced within a frame supplied by the teacher. The teacher gives the frame orally first, then asks the student to repeat it. Eventually, the frame is used as a response to a verbal stimulus supplied by the teacher. The exercise below is used to practice must.

Teacher: I want to learn English. Speak.
Student A: You must speak it.
Teacher: I want to learn English. Practice.
Student B: You must practice it.

⁵Edward M. Anthony, "The Pattern Practice of Meanings," Language Learning, Volume II, Number 3, 1949, p. 83. Robert Lado, "Pattern Practice-- Completely Oral," Language Learning, Volume I, Number 1, 1948, p. 24.

- b) Automatic alternation. Some words in English have very little meaning of their own, depending for the most part on some other element in the sentence. For example, in the exercise below, the use of in, on, at depends on the word following it. In is used with cities and states, on with the name of a street, and at with the number of a house.

Teacher: He lives in Chicago. Main Street.
Student A: He lives on Main Street.
Teacher: He lives in Chicago. 1111 Catherine Street.
Student B: He lives at 1111 Catherine Street.

- c) Lexical forcing. Here the object is to force the student to supply the correct item, for if he does not, the resulting sentence is incorrect, and the error is easily detectable.

Teacher: He had breakfast in the morning. At noon.
Student A: He had lunch at noon.
Teacher: He had breakfast in the morning. In the evening.
Student B: He had dinner in the evening.

- d) Production-recognition. For alternate methods of describing the same situation, the production-recognition exercise is valuable. Here the teacher gives the recognition item and the student supplies the equivalent production item. In the exercise below, seven forty-five, and eight thirty are used for production because of their regularity, quarter to eight and half-past eight for recognition because of their frequency of occurrence.

Teacher: It's quarter to eight.
Student A: It's seven forty-five.
Teacher: It's half past eight.
Student B: It's eight thirty.

3. Advanced exercises. Advanced classes can get practice by taking part in debates, giving speeches, taking notes, etc.⁶

⁶Edward M. Anthony, "Speech Making and Note Taking as an Aid to Language Learning," Language Learning, Volume I, Number 3, 1948, p. 23.

INTRODUCTORY LESSON

A. Introductory Conversations

Conventional orthography shows the teacher's part of the dialogue. The teacher should be careful to use only the final-fall intonation curves in asking the questions in the dialogs.

I. Classroom

A. Where are you from?

B. [aɪ dɒnt ɛndər'stænd]

A. Where are you from?

B. [plɪz tɒk slɔːli]

A. Where are you from?

B. [plɪz rɪ'pɪt]

A. Where are you from?

B. [aɪ ɛndər'stænd naʊ aɪm frəm venə'zweɪlə]

II. Identification

A. What is your name?

B. [maɪ nɛm ɪz hwan pə'reɪz]

A. Where are you from?

B. [aɪm frəm venə'zweɪlə]

A. Where do you live?

B. [aɪ liv ən mɛn strɪt]

A. What is your phone number?

B. [maɪ fɒn nʌmbə ɪz tu fɔː faɪv naɪn wən]

A. What is his phone number?

B. [hɪz fɒn nʌmbə ɪz ʊri sɪks səvən et]

A. When did you arrive?

B. [aɪ əraɪvd jə'stɜːdɪ]

A. Do you understand?

B. [jɛs aɪ ɛndər'stænd]

III. Introduction monologue

[maɪ nɛm ɪz hwaɪn pɛrɛz]

[kɛrɛkɛs ɪz ɪn vɛnɛzweɪlə]

[aɪ bɪɡɪn klæs tɛmɔro]

[aɪm ɪn ðə juːnaɪtɪd stɛts tu stɛdi æɡrɪkəlʃər]

IV. Phonetic alphabet

A. Why is the new alphabet necessary?

B. [ðə nu ælfəbet ɪz kɛnsɪstənt]

[spænɪʃ spɛlɪŋ ɪz ɡʊd]

[ɪŋɡlɪʃ spɛlɪŋ ɪz bæd]

[ə fɒnɛtɪk ælfəbet ɪz kɛnsɪstənt]

[wɛn sɪmbəl ɪkwɛlz wɛn saʊnd]

[wɛn saʊnd ɪkwɛlz wɛn sɪmbəl]

[səm sɪmbɛlz ɑr nat frəm ðə juːʒuəl ælfəbet]

[fɔr ɛɡzæmpəl]

[θ ɪz juːzd ɪn ðə wɜːd θɪŋk]

[ð ɪz juːzd ɪn ðə wɜːd ðɛn]

[wɪr lɜːnɪŋ ðə fɒnɛtɪk ælfəbet tɛdɛ]

Spanish Equivalents

If the student's attention is called to the translations, it should be emphasized that utterance equals utterance, but word does not equal word.

I. En la clase

- A. De donde es Vd?
- B. No entiendo.
- A. De donde es Vd?
- B. Favor de hablar despacio.
- A. De donde es Vd?
- B. Favor de repetir.
- A. De donde es Vd?
- B. Ahora entiendo. Soy de Venezuela.

II. Identificación

- A. Como se llama Vd?
- B. Me llamo Juan Pérez.
- A. De donde es Vd?
- B. Soy de Venezuela.
- A. Donde vive Vd?
- B. Vivo en Main Street.
- A. Cual es el número de su teléfono? (de Vd.)
- B. El número de mi teléfono es 2-4591.
- A. Cual es el número de su teléfono? (de el)
- B. El número de su teléfono es 3678.
- A. Cuando llegó Vd?
- B. Llegué ayer.
- A. Entiende Vd?
- B. Si, entiendo.

III. Monólogo de presentación

Me llamo Juan Pérez.
Soy de Caracas.
Caracas está en Venezuela.
Mañana empiezo las clases.
Estoy en los Estados Unidos para estudiar agricultura

IV. El alfabeto fonético

- A. Porque es necesario el alfabeto nuevo?
- B. El alfabeto nuevo es lógico.
La ortografía del español es buena.
La ortografía del inglés es mala.
Un alfabeto fonético es lógico.
Un símbolo representa un sonido.
Un sonido representa un símbolo.
Algunos símbolos no son del alfabeto corriente.
Por ejemplo:
θ se usa en la palabra think.
ð se usa en la palabra then.
Hoy estamos aprendiendo el alfabeto fonético.

B. Cognate Words

English and Spanish have descended from the same ancient language. For this reason, and because English has borrowed words from Latin, French, and Spanish, we can find relations between the two languages. Students will know some of the meanings of many English words without studying them. For example, the English words complete, tourist, and action have a similarity to the Spanish words completo, turista, and acción. We call words of this type cognate words. The English pronunciation is always different from the Spanish pronunciation. The English word is always used in a partially different group of situations than the Spanish word. The teacher will help you to learn the new pronunciation and to apply the word to the correct situation. In spite of these difficulties, a knowledge of cognate words is of great value, because it gives you an extensive vocabulary with little effort.

Some of the correspondences that are common are the following:

I. Spanish words terminating in -cion are sometimes similar to English words terminating in -tion.

1. Communication by telephone is very rapid.
2. Latin civilizations are very old.
3. You have an obligation to learn English.
4. The theory of evolution was established by Darwin.
5. This section is advancing rapidly.

Notice the pronunciation of -tion and the syllable of primary stress.

kəmyunɪ	ké	šen
sivilɪ	zé	šen
ɔbli	gé	šen
ese	lú	šen

II. Spanish words terminating in -dad are frequently equivalent to English words terminating in -ty.

1. There is a variety of museums in Ann Arbor.
2. There are many small communities in Michigan.
3. Learning English in one day is an impossibility.

Notice the pronunciation of -ty and the syllable of primary stress.

və	rái	etɪ
kə	myún	etɪ
ɪmpəse	bɪl	etɪ

III. Spanish words terminating in -io are frequently equivalent to English words terminating in -y.

1. We do not recommend a Spanish-English dictionary.
2. Study is necessary.
3. Students need a satisfactory pronunciation.

Notice the pronunciation of -y and the syllables of primary and secondary stress.

dík	šə	nəri
né	sə	səri

sətisfákteri

IV. Spanish words terminating in -e are often equivalent to English words terminating in a final consonant.

1. He claims he is a descendent of the pilgrims.
2. President Roosevelt was an intelligent man.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

in	pré	zi	dənt
	té	li	ʃənt

diséndent

V. Some Spanish words in -ar are equivalent to English words terminating in -ate.

1. The air does not circulate freely in the summer.
2. The Japanese capitulated in 1945.
3. "In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

ke	sér	kyulet
	pí	čulet

criét

VI. Spanish words terminating in -ia are frequently equivalent to English words terminating in -y.

1. It is easy to remember that melody.
2. The economy of China is not in good condition.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

	mé	lo	di
i	kán	ə	mi

VII. Spanish words can frequently be converted into English words by removing the -ar, -er, -ir.

1. He describes his country very well.
2. The teacher omits the last exercise.
3. Edison invented the electric lamp.
4. The doctor prescribed penicillin.
5. We must utilize cognates to learn English.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

di	skráib
o	mít
in	vént
pri	skráib

yútilaiz

VIII. Spanish words ending in -o are sometimes similar to English words terminating in a consonant.

1. The adjective precedes the substantive in English.
2. Miss Gonzalez is noted for her optimism.
3. Coffee is a product of Colombia.
4. Mr. Gomez is sincere.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

é	jektiv
séb	stəntiv
áp	təmizəm
prá	dəkt

IX. Spanish words terminating in -a are frequently equivalent to English words terminating in a consonant.

1. He is a good person.
2. Many tourists go to Mexico.
3. Juan plays the guitar.

Notice the pronunciation of these words.

pér	sen
túr	ist

getár

In the course of history, some words which have a similar orthographic form in Spanish and English have developed radically different meanings. These words are called false cognates, and one must be very careful in using them correctly.

Some common false cognates are:

1. The United States did not actually enter the last war until 1941.
2. He assisted me in my work when I attended his class.
3. His attendance was regular. He was present every day.
4. This room is large but not long.
5. He succeeded as a doctor after many years of hard work.
6. John is sympathetic. He is compassionate.

LESSON I

VOCABULARY

I. Lexical Stress Markings: Primary [/], Secondary [\].

Words of more than one syllable have one longer and louder syllable. A heavy acute accent [/] indicates the stressed syllable in these texts. A lighter grave accent [\] is sometimes used to indicate a secondary stress. For example:

Primary Stress Markings

[rɪpít]
[yéstərɪ]

Secondary Stress Markings and Primary Stress Markings

[ɪntéleʃənt]
[əlfəbət]

II. Introductions

1. a) James: [místər lén ɔs ɪz tomas kərɪlyo. hɪz əstúdent]
Mr. Lane: [hau də yədu]
Tomas: [hau də yədu]
- b) Mr. Lane: [vərʃɪnyə ɔs ɪz tomas kərɪlyc ən ʃəmz braun]
Mrs. Lane: [hau də yədu]
Tomas: [hau də yədu mɪsɪz lén]
James: [hau də yədu]

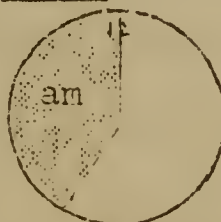
2. We frequently extend our hands in introductions. We occasionally do not extend our hands. Individual customs of introductions in the United States are frequently different. Foreign students should observe personal customs.

3. James: [místər lén ɔs ɪz mɪstər gómɛz. mɪstər gómɛz ɪz əstúdent]
lóyer
déntɪst
tíçɪr
árkətekt
ɪnstrektər
préfɛsɪr

III. Greetings

1. Methods of saying Hello

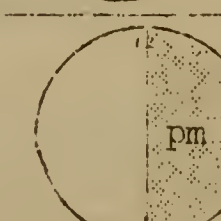
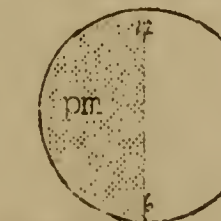
7 a.m. - 12 m.



[həló]

[gud mórɪnɪŋ]

12 m. - 6 p.m.



[həló]

[gud ívɪnɪŋ]

6 p.m. - 12 a.m.

2. Methods of saying Goodbye

7 p.m. - 12 a.m.



[gud baɪ]

[gud naɪt]

3. How are you?

We frequently use How are you? in addition to the greetings in 1 and 2.

Tomas: [gud mórning hau ar yu]

Mr. Lane: [fain hau ar yu]

Tomas: [véry wél ǝæŋk yu]
1

1. [gud, wél, prítɪ gud, prítɪ fər, fər]

IV. Expressions of Pardon

1. Causing inconvenience

a) John accidentally steps on Mary's toe.

John: [aim sɔɪ]

Mary: [ðæts ɔl raɪt]

b) John and Mary enter the theater after the movie begins. The sole seats are in the center. John says as he enters:

[plɪz ɛkskyúz mi]

2. Withdrawal

John and Mary and Mr. Williams are eating. It is time for John to leave.

John: [plɪz ɛkskyúz mi]

Mary and Mr. Williams: [ʃérli]

3. Interruption

John and Mr. Williams are conversing. Mary interrupts. She says:

[plɪz ɛkskyúz mi ǝ tɛlɛfɒn]

V. In, on, at, in expressions of time.

1. When did you arrive? [in ʃányewerɪ] [in jɛláɪ] [in septémber]
1951

ʃányewerɪ	me	septémber
fɛbyewerɪ	ʃun	aktóber
marč	ʃeláɪ	novémber
éprɪl	ógest	disémber

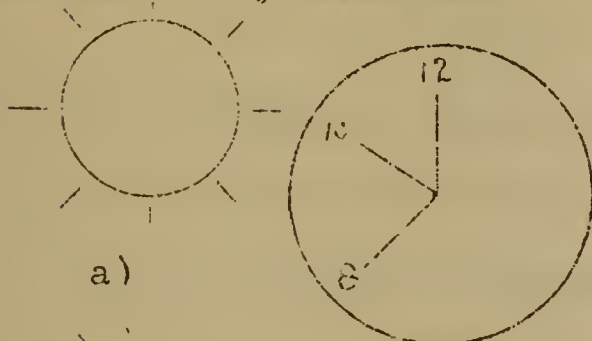
The names of the months are preceded by in.

2. When did you arrive? [an méndɪ] [an túzdɪ] [an fráɪdɪ]

séɲdɪ	méndɪ	túzdɪ	wénzdɪ	serzdɪ	fráɪdɪ	sætərdɪ
-------	-------	-------	--------	--------	--------	---------

The names of the days are preceded by on.

3. When did you arrive?



a)

[ət et e ɛm]
[ət tɛn e ɛm]
[ət twelv] [ət nun]

At noon and at twelve are equivalent here.



b)

[ət et pi ɛm]
[ət tɛn pi ɛm]
[ət twelv] [ət mɪdnait]

At midnight and at twelve are equivalent here.

The numbers of hours are preceded by at.

4. Today is Wednesday.

When did you arrive?

[yéstərdɪ]
[læst naɪt]

[an túzdɪ]
[ət et pi ɛm]

Yesterday and last night are used alone. September, Friday, six are used with in, on, and at.

In is used with large units of time.

On is used with intermediate units of time.

At is used with points of time.



LESSON II

VOCABULARY

Review

1. Teacher greets students with some of the greetings in Lesson I.

2. I arrived in June
1. 2.

1. in, on, at, yesterday, last night.

2. June, Tuesday, six.

I. Meals: Breakfast, lunch, dinner.

1. We always serve breakfast [brékfest] in the morning.

I have cereal for breakfast.

eggs



fruit juice [frut jus]



coffee



bacon

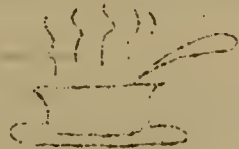


2. We usually serve lunch at noon.

I have sandwiches [sénwičez] for lunch



soup



bread and butter



3. We sometimes serve dinner at noon. We serve dinner at noon on Sunday. We usually serve dinner in the evening.

I have meat for dinner.

steak



fish



vegetables [vejtəbelz]



4. We sometimes serve dinner at noon. We have supper in the evening.

We have sandwiches for supper

salad



soup

milk



II. Words of frequency: always, usually, often, sometimes, never.

Observe the following:

1. He has bacon for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.

He always [ólwiz] has bacon for breakfast

2. He has coffee for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday. (He does not have coffee for breakfast on Sunday.)

He usually [yúžueli] has coffee for breakfast.

3. He has toast for breakfast on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday. (He does not have toast on Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.)

He often [ófen] has toast for breakfast.

4. He has tea for supper on Sunday. (He does not have tea on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, and Saturday.)

He sometimes [séntamz] has tea for supper.

5. He does not have sandwiches for breakfast. (He sometimes has sandwiches for lunch and dinner.)

He never [néver] has sandwiches for breakfast.

Always 100% of the instances.

Usually 80% of the instances.

Often 50% of the instances.

Sometimes 15% of the instances.

Never 0% of the instances.

III. The expressions in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening, at night.

Review: When did you arrive?

- | | | |
|---------------|--------------|--------------|
| a) in January | b) on Monday | c) at 8 a.m. |
| in July | on Tuesday | at 10 p.m. |
| in September | on Wednesday | at noon |

1. Observe the use of the in the following sentences:

When did you arrive?

in		January	
in	the	morning	
in		June	
in	the	afternoon	[æftərnʌn]
in		March	
in	the	evening	[iːvnɪŋ]

The words morning, afternoon, and evening are preceded by in the, in these expressions.

2. Observe the following sentences:

When did you arrive?

in the morning
in the afternoon
in the evening
at night [ət naɪt]

The word night is preceded by at in these expressions. The expression at night is parallel to in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening.

IV. Conversation (for memorization)

Mrs. Evans: [dīnərz rēdi]
Mr. Evans: [ɔl raɪt]
Visitor: [faɪn]
(They sit down)
Mr. Evans: [plɪz pæs ðə sɒlt ən pēpər]
Visitor: [cərtənli]
Mr. Evans: [θæŋk yu]
Visitor: [jər wɛlkəm]
Mrs. Evans: [plɪz pæs ðə sʊɡər]
Visitor: [cərtənli]

Exercises

1. He eats breakfast at six.
1. 2.

1. breakfast, dinner, lunch, supper.
2. at six, in the morning, in the evening, at noon.

2. He always eats breakfast at 10 in the morning.
1. 2. 3. 4.

1. always, usually, often, sometimes, never.
2. breakfast, lunch, dinner, supper.
3. at 10, at 1, at 12, at 6, at noon, at 7:30.
4. in the morning, in the evening, at night, in the afternoon.

LESSON III

VOCABULARY

Review

Students repeat conversation in Lesson II from memory.

I. A Dinner Menu

Fruit Juice
or
Vegetable Soup

Salad

Entree

Steak.....2.50

Fried Whitefish...1.50

Pork Chops.....1.85

Roast Beef.....1.80

Lamb Chops.....2.00

(Price of Entree determines
price of meal.)

Vegetables (Choice)

Buttered Carrots

Spinach

Beets

Green Beans

Mashed, French Fried, or
Baked Potatoes

Dessert (a la carte)

Ice Cream.....15

Pie.....20

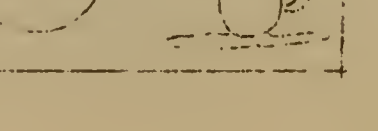
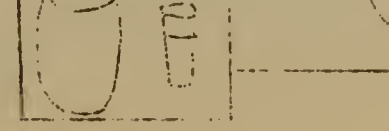
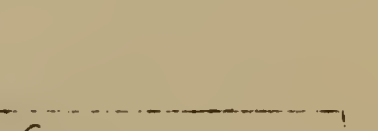
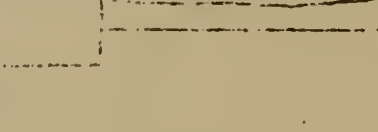
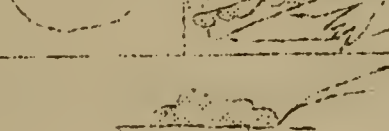
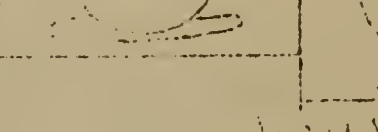
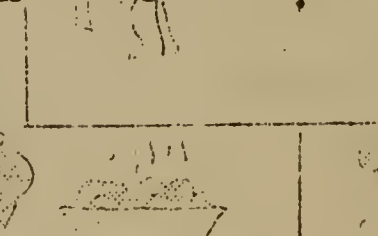
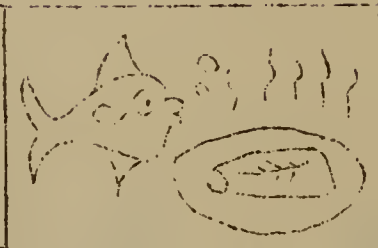
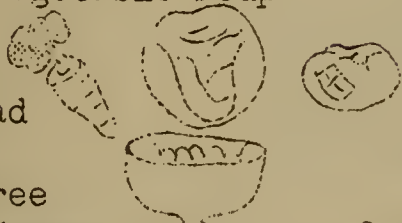
Pudding.....20

Chocolate Cake....20

Sundae.....25

Beverage

Coffee, Tea, or Milk



II. Ordering Food in a Restaurant

1. We have pie.
1

a. What kind?

- b. Apple, pineapple, and cherry.
2

1. pie, fruit juice, ice cream, dessert
2. ice cream, pie, and pudding
chocolate and vanilla
apple, orange, and tomato
apple, pineapple, cherry



2. Exercise:

Students practice conversation, using correct substitutions.

- a. One order of steak please.
1

b. Yes sir.

1. steak, lamb chops, green beans, pie, coffee

3.

- a. May I have the check please?
b. Certainly

Exercise

- a. Students repeat this conversation, changing the appropriate parts.

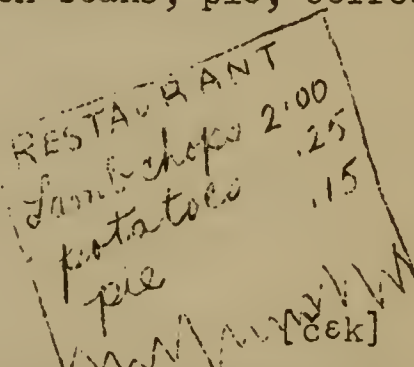
a. What kind of pie do you have?

b. Apple, pineapple, cherry.

a. One order of cherry pie, please.

b. Certainly

- b. Teacher guides conversation with one student as waiter, another as guest.



III. Flavors, Consistencies, Tastes

1. The coffee is hot.
1 2



1. coffee, soup, ice cream, tea
2. hot, warm, cool, cold

Hot, warm, cool, cold describe temperature.

2. a. The lemon is sour. [sauer]
cherry
apple

- b. The sugar is sweet.
pie
ice cream

Exercise:

The pie is sweet.
1 2

1. sugar, ice-cream, lemon, cherry, apple
2. sweet, sour

3. a. The steak is tough. [tef]
lamb chop
roast beef
pork chop



- b. The steak is tender
pork chop
lamb chop

- c. The butter is hard. (It is solid.)
soft. (It is not solid.)



- d. The bread is soft. (It is not solid.)
hard. (It is solid.)



Exercise:

The butter is soft.
1 2

1. butter, pork chop, lamb chop, roast beef, bread
2. hard, soft, tender, tough

IV. The words when? and where?, what? and whom?1. When? [wen] Review in, on, at, Lesson I.

- a. He arrived.
- b. When?
- a. On Tuesday.

1

1. six, Wednesday, June

When? obtains an answer designating time.2. Where? [wer]

- a. He lives in South America.
- b. Where?
- a. In Venezuela.

1

1. Brazil, Colombia, Chile

Where? obtains an answer designating place.

Exercise:

- a. He studies English.

- b. Where? [wer]

1

- a. In New York.

2

1. Where, when [wen]

2. In New York, in Chicago, in the evening, at night,
in Colombia, in the morning.3. What? [wet]

- a. He had it for breakfast.
- b. What?
- a. Coffee.
cereal
tea
milk
toast

What? obtains an answer designating a thing.4. Who(m)? [hu]

- a. She served him.
- b. Who(m)?
- a. Henry.
George
the professor

Who(m)? obtains an answer designating a person.

Exercise:

a. They served them.

b. Who(m)?

1

a. Henry and Mary

2

1. Who(m), what

2. Coffee and toast, steak and potatoes

Henry and John, Mary and James

V. The words here and there.

1. This conversation occurs on a train.

a. He lives at the English House.

Hotel

Union

League

b. Does he eat there?

a. Yes.

2. This conversation occurs in the English House.

a. He lives at the English House.

b. Does he eat here?

a. Yes.

Exercise:

a. We are at the English House.

1

b. He lives at the English House.

2

a. Does he eat here?

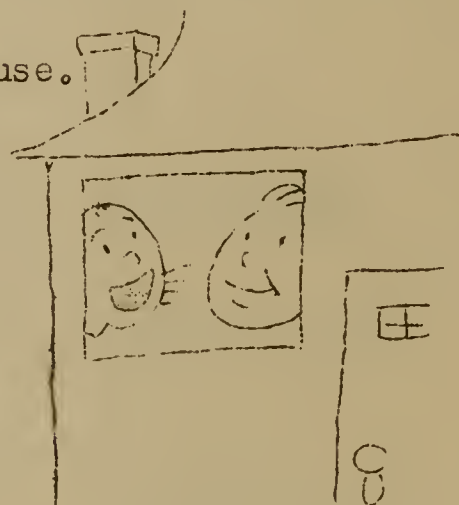
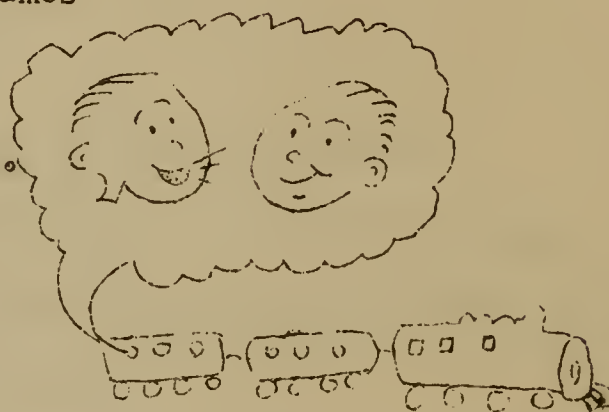
3

b. Yes.

1. English House, Hotel, Union

2. English House, Hotel, Union

3. here, there



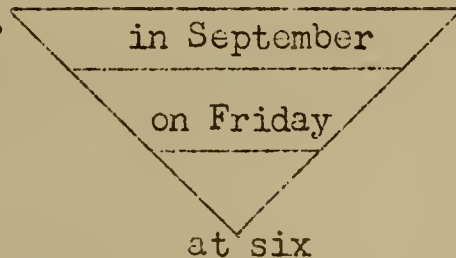
LESSON IV

VOCABULARY

I. In, on, at in expressions of addresses.

1. Review in, on, at, in expressions of time. (Lesson I, Part V.)

When did you arrive?



2. Where do you live? [in æn árber] [in šikágo] [in míšigen]

The names of countries, states, and cities are preceded by in.

3. Where do you live? [an|stet|strit] [an|men|strit] [an|færst|strit]

The names of streets are preceded by on.

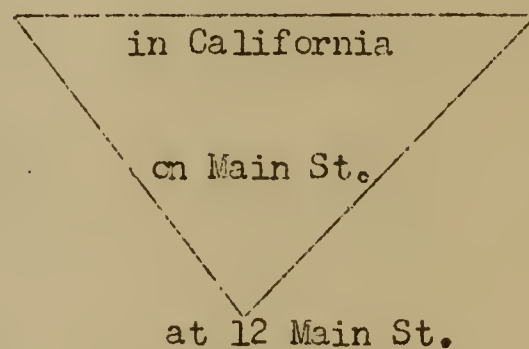
4. Where do you live? [æt twelv stet strit] [æt wen eri faiv séven men strit] [æt fórtin færst strit]

The numbers of houses are preceded by at.

In is used with large geographical units.

On is used with intermediate geographical units.

At is used with small geographical units.



Exercise:

She lives on Hamilton Street.
1 2

1. in, on, at
2. Hamilton Street, New York, Venezuela, 853 [æt faiv eri] Catherine Street.

II. Addresses

Where does he live?

at 3 [eri] Hamilton Street
12 [wen tu]
853 [et faiv eri]
1452 [wen fór faiv tu]
21853 [tu wen et faiv eri]
21053 [tu wen o faiv eri]

1. Introduction

2. Methodology

3. Results and Discussion

4. Conclusion

5. References

6. Appendix

7. Index

8. Acknowledgements

9. Author's Note

10. Correspondence

11. Contact Information

12. Declaration of Interest

13. Funding Source

14. Data Availability

15. Ethics Approval

16. Conflicts of Interest

17. Author Contributions

18. Supplementary Materials

19. Additional Resources

20. Notes

21. References

22. Appendix

23. Index

24. Acknowledgements

25. Author's Note

26. Correspondence

27. Contact Information

28. Declaration of Interest

29. Funding Source

Addresses in general are pronounced as series of single cardinals.
Zero (0) is pronounced [o] in addresses.

Exercise:

He lives at 10 Catherine Street
1

1. 10, 47, 386, 1992, 90458, 8

III. Telephone Numbers

What is your phone number?

It's 83 [et ɛri]
9310 [nain ɛri wən o]
26368 [tu siks ɛri siks et]
University 36489 [ɛri siks fɔr et nain]

Telephone numbers in general are pronounced as series of single cardinals.

Zero (0) is pronounced [o] in telephone numbers.

Large cities often use a name preceding the number.

Exercise:

What is your phone number?

It's 71.
1

1. 71, 84, 4071, 24478, Prospect 79351

IV. The expressions once, twice, three times, etc.,

I telephoned her at 4.
I telephoned her once.

I telephoned her at 4 and at 5.
I telephoned her twice.

I telephoned her at 4, at 5, and at 6.
I telephoned her three times.

I telephoned her three times yesterday and
once today.

I telephoned her four times.

Once and twice are parallel to three times and four times.

Exercise:

a. He phoned her at 5.
1

b. He phoned her once.
2

1. at 5 and at six
once in the evening and once in the morning
at 7
twice today and once yesterday
twice today and twice yesterday
2. once, twice, three times, four times

V. The word ago. The time words minute, hour, day, month, week

1.



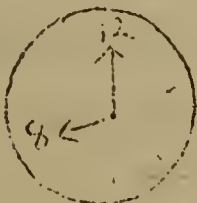
JUNE						
S	M	T	W	T	F	S
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21

It is 6:15



He arrived at 6. He arrived 15 minutes ago.

It is 8.



He arrived at 6. He arrived two hours ago.

2. It is Wednesday.

S	M	T	W	T	F	S
---	---	---	---	---	---	---

He arrived on Monday. He arrived two days ago.

3. It is August.

May	June
July	August
Sept.	October

He arrived in June. He arrived two months ago.

4. It is January 21. He arrived on January 14. He arrived two weeks ago.

January

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21

Exercise:

1. S (M) T W T F S (He arrived on Monday.)

a. It's Wednesday now.

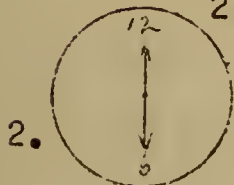
1

b. He arrived two days ago.

2

1. Wednesday, Thursday, Friday

2. two, three, four



2. (He arrived at 6.)

a. It's seven now.

1

b. He arrived one hour ago.

2

1. seven, eight, nine, ten

2. one hour, two hours, three hours, four hours

3. JUNE (He arrived in June.)

a. It's July now.

1

b. He arrived one month ago.

2

1. July, August, September, October

2. One, two, three, four

VI. The word then. [ðen]

Observe the word then in the following sentences.

a. John arrived at 6.

b. Did you see him then?

a. Yes.

a. John arrived on Tuesday.

b. Did you see him then?

a. Yes.

a. John arrived in June.

b. Did you see him then?

a. Yes.

Then refers to the previously mentioned time in the examples.

VII. The use of every [évri] and all in expressions of time.

every

He has lunch at the English House every day. (He has lunch there on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday.)

He studies grammar every evening. (He studies grammar on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, etc. in the evening.)

REPORTS OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

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He goes to class every morning. (He goes to class on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, etc. in the morning.)

He studies every day. (He studies on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, etc.)

Every is also used with the names of days: He studies every Monday.

2. all

He studies all day. (He studies the entire day.)

He was there all afternoon. (He was there the entire afternoon.)

All is also used with the word day and the names of the days:

He studied all day Wednesday.

Exercise:

1.a. He studied from breakfast to lunch,¹
1

b. He studied all morning.
2

1. from breakfast to lunch
from lunch to dinner
from 7 p.m. to 10 p.m.

2. all morning, all afternoon, all evening

2.a. He studies from breakfast to lunch
1

b. He studies every morning.
2

1. from breakfast to lunch
from lunch to dinner
from 7 p.m. to 10 p.m.

2. every morning, every afternoon,
every evening

3.a. He studies every morning.
1

b. Do you study then?

a. No, I study in the evening.
2

1. morning, afternoon, evening
2. in the morning, in the afternoon,
in the evening.

¹The expression from...to is used here to indicate the initial point and the final point of a period of time.

VIII. The ordinal numbers.

When did you arrive?	I arrived on January	1st.	[fərst]
		2nd.	[sékənd]
		3rd.	[θərd]
		4th.	[fóre]
		5th.	[fife]
		20th.	[twéntiəθ]
		21st.	[twénti fərst]
		22nd.	[twénti səkənd]
		23rd.	[twénti θərd]
		24th.	[twénti fóre]
		30th.	[θətriəθ]
		31st.	[θətri fərst]

IX. CARDINALS

ORDINALS

CARDINALS			ORDINALS		
	Spelling	Pronunciation		Spelling	Pronunciation
1	one	[wɛn]	1st	<u>first</u>	[fɛrst]
2	two	[tu]	2nd	<u>second</u>	[sɛkənd]
3	three	[θri]	3rd	<u>third</u>	[θɜrd]
4	four	[fɔr]	4th	<u>fourth</u>	[fɔrθ]
5	five	[faɪv]	5th	<u>fifth</u>	[fɪfθ]
6	six	[sɪks]	6th	<u>sixth</u>	[sɪksθ]
7	seven	[sɛvən]	7th	<u>seventh</u>	[sɛvənθ]
8	eight	[et]	8th	<u>eighth</u>	[eɪθ]
9	nine	[naɪn]	9th	<u>ninth</u>	[naɪnθ]
10	ten	[tɛn]	10th	<u>tenth</u>	[tɛnθ]
11	eleven	[ɛlɛvən]	11th	<u>eleventh</u>	[ɛlɛvənθ]
12	twelve	[twɛlv]	12th	<u>twelfth</u>	[twɛlfθ]
13	thirteen	[θɜrtɪn]	13th	<u>thirteenth</u>	[θɜrtɪnθ]
14	fourteen	[fɔrtɪn]	14th	<u>fourteenth</u>	[fɔrtɪnθ]
15	fifteen	[fɪftɪn]	15th	<u>fifteenth</u>	[fɪftɪnθ]
16	sixteen	[sɪkstɪn]	16th	<u>sixteenth</u>	[sɪkstɪnθ]
17	seventeen	[sɛvɛntɪn]	17th	<u>seventeenth</u>	[sɛvɛntɪnθ]
18	eighteen	[étɪn]	18th	<u>eighteenth</u>	[étɪnθ]
19	nineteen	[naɪntɪn]	19th	<u>nineteenth</u>	[naɪntɪnθ]
20	twenty	[twɛntri]	20th	<u>twentieth</u>	[twɛntiəθ]
21	twenty-one	[twɛntri wɛn]	21st	<u>twenty-first</u>	[twɛntri fɛrst]
22	twenty-two	[twɛntri tu]	22nd	<u>twenty-second</u>	[twɛntri sɛkənd]
23	twenty-three	[twɛntri θri]	23rd	<u>twenty-third</u>	[twɛntri θɜrd]
24	twenty-four	[twɛntri fɔr]	24th	<u>twenty-fourth</u>	[twɛntri fɔrθ]
			(Underlined forms are not regular)		
30	<u>thirty</u>	[θɜrtɪ]	The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
40	<u>forty</u>	[fɔrtɪ]			
50	<u>fifty</u>	[fɪftɪ]			
60	<u>sixty</u>	[sɪkstɪ]			
70	<u>seventy</u>	[sɛvɛntɪ]			
80	<u>eighty</u>	[étɪ]	The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
90	<u>ninety</u>	[naɪntɪ]			
100	one hundred	[wɛn hɛndrɛd]			
101	one hundred and one	[wɛn hɛndrɛd ən wɛn]			
200	two hundred	[tu hɛndrɛd]			
300	As cardinals, these pattern as the first digit with <u>hundred</u>		The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
400					
500					
600					
700					
800	As cardinals, these pattern as the first digit with <u>thousand</u>		The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
900					
1000	one thousand	[wɛn θaʊzənd]	The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
1001	one thousand and one	[wɛn θaʊzənd ən wɛn]			
2000	As cardinals, these pattern as the first digit with <u>thousand</u>		The ordinal forms of these numbers are not frequent.		
3000					

VOCABULARY

LESSON V

I. Money

1. We have coins (metal money) of one cent, (a penny); five cents, (a nickel) [nɪkəl]; ten cents, (a dime); twenty-five cents, [kwɔrtər] (a half dollar) [hæf dɔlər]. Coins of one dollar are rare.

\$.01	one cent	(a penny)
.05	five cents	(a nickel)
.10	ten cents	(a dime)
.25	twenty-five cents	(a quarter)
.50	fifty cents	(a half dollar)
1.00	one dollar	



2. Our common bills (paper money) are for one dollar, two dollars, five dollars, ten dollars, and twenty dollars,

Exercise:

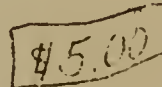
- 1.a. Do you have change for a quarter?

1

- b. Yes, I have two dimes and a nickel.

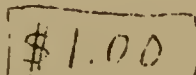
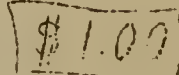
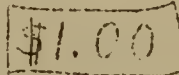
2

1. quarter, dime, nickel, half dollar
2. two dimes and a nickel, two nickels, two quarters, five pennies.



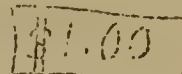
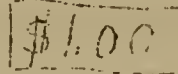
- 2.a. Do you have change for a five dollar bill?

1



- b. Yes, I have five one-dollar bills.

2



1. five, ten, twenty
2. five, ten, twenty

- 3.a. Do you have change for a twenty dollar bill?

1

- b. Yes, I have four five-dollar bills.

1. twenty, ten
2. four, two

II. Saying quantities of money

John has \$2.98 (two dollars and ninety-eight cents)
3.00 (Three dollars)
.25 (Twenty-five cents)
.05 (Five cents)

And separates the expression of dollars and the expression of cents.

Exercise:

We have \$3.42 (Three dollars and forty-two cents)
2.35
.42
.50
.03

III. The words lend...to, and borrow...from. [báro]

She is lending a pencil to him.



He is borrowing a pencil from her.

Lend and borrow describe the same situation from two points of view.

Exercise:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| a. Please lend a pencil to me. | a. I want to borrow a pencil from you. |
| b. I'm going to lend a pencil to you. | b. You're going to borrow a pencil from me. |

IV. The expressions this morning, this noon, this afternoon, this evening, tonight.

Review in the morning, at noon, in the afternoon, in the evening, at night.

[illegible]

1892

...

[illegible]

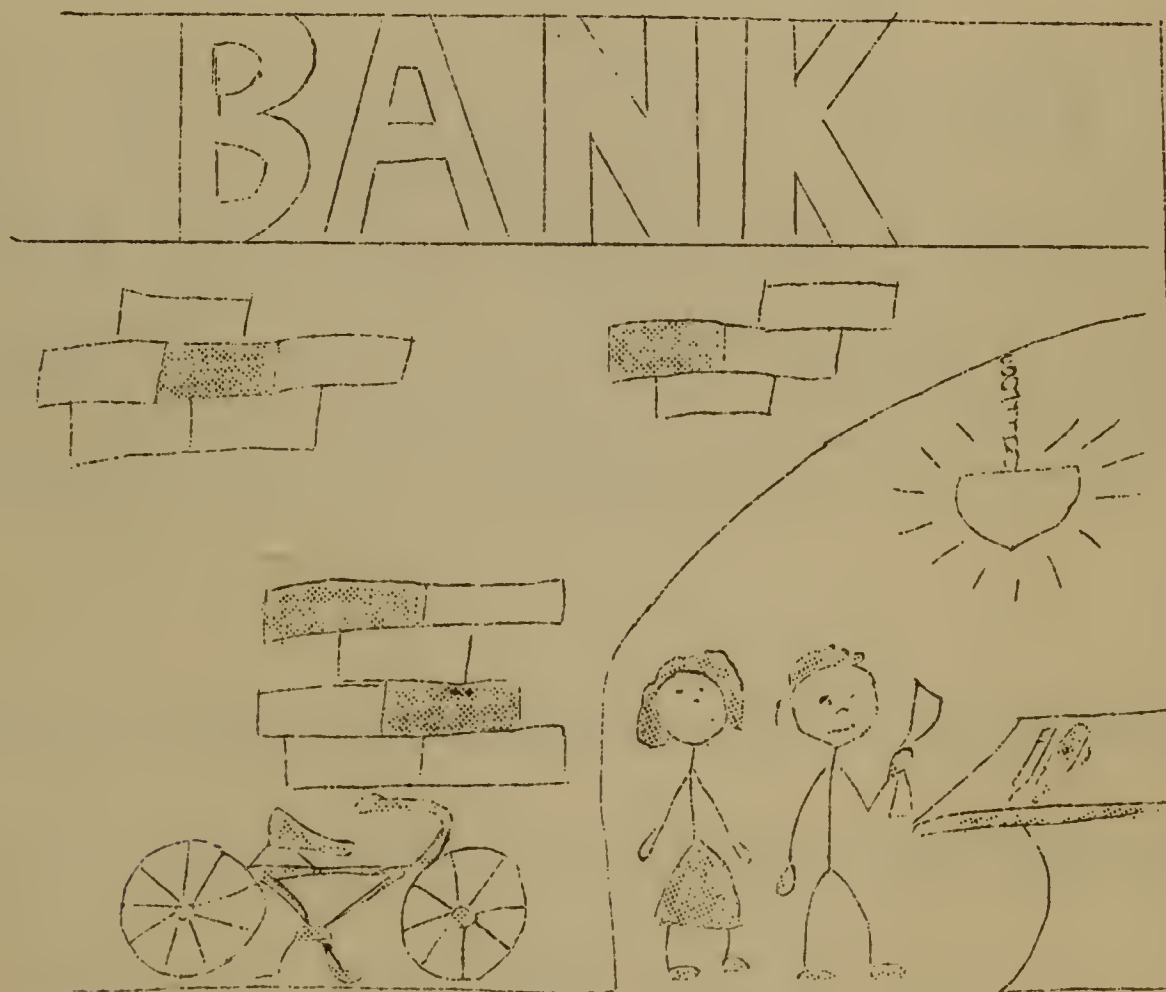
Observe the following sentences:

He had breakfast here this morning.
 We had lunch here this noon.
 He was here this afternoon.
 He is going to be here tonight.

The expressions this morning, this noon, this afternoon, describe parts of today. They do not depend on the form of the verb. They can be used in past and future situations.

V. Words of place

John is <u>in</u> the bank.	A bicycle is <u>outside</u> [autsard] the bank.
The pen is <u>on</u> the table.	Mary is <u>in back of</u> John.
The pencil is <u>near</u> the pen.	John is <u>in front of</u> Mary.
The pencil is <u>beside</u> [bisard] the pen.	The lamp is <u>above</u> the table.
John is <u>inside</u> [insard] the bank.	The table is <u>under</u> the lamp.
	John is <u>between</u> Mary and the table.

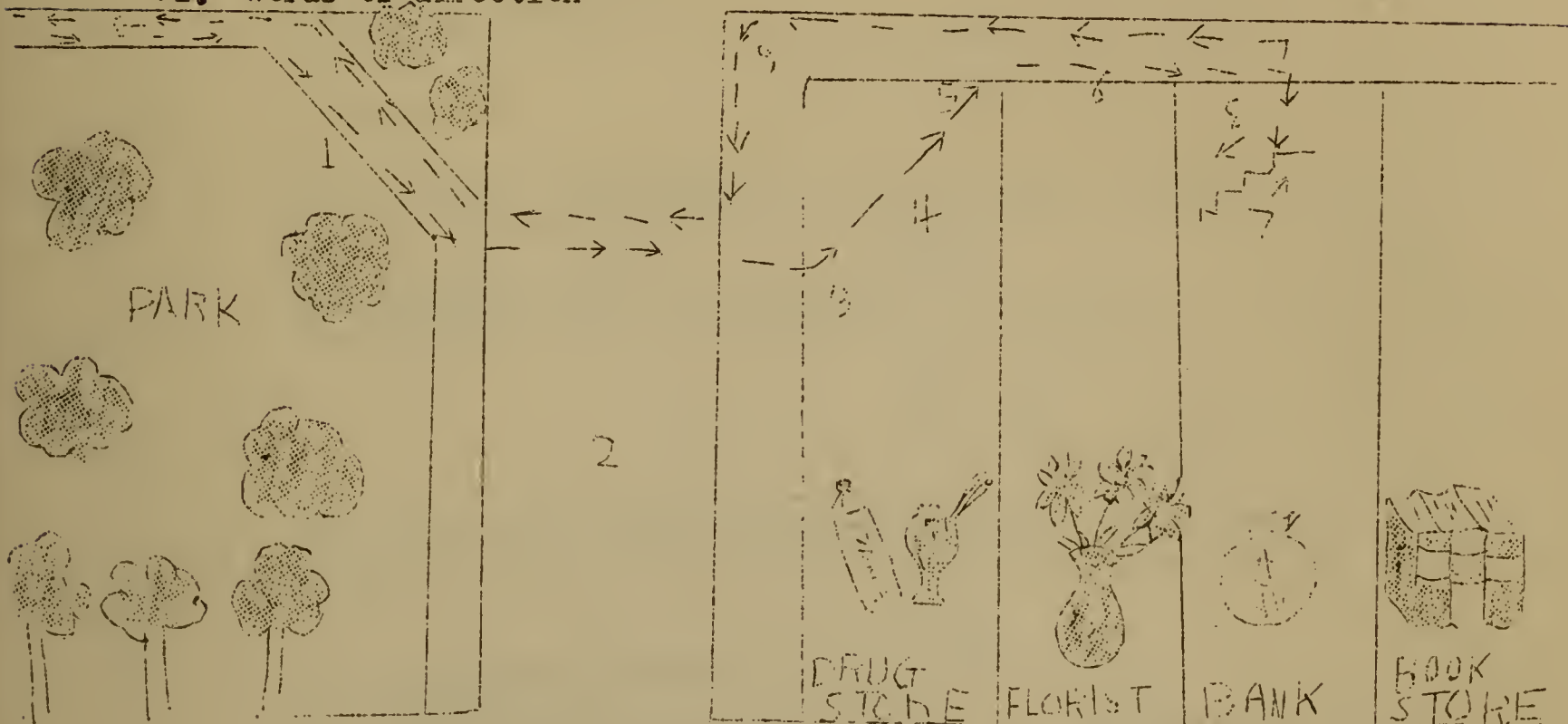


Exercise:

1. John is in the bank. Where is the bicycle?
 The pen is on the table. Where is the lamp?
 The pen is beside the pencil. Where is the pencil?
 Mary is in back of John. Where is John?
 The table is under the lamp. Where is the lamp?

2. The teacher asks the students to describe the position of various objects in the classroom.

VI. Words of direction



John wanted to go to the bank. He walked through the park.(1)
 (The drug store is opposite the park.(2) Then he went into the
 drug store.(3) He went through the drug store.(4) Then he went
out of the drug store.(5) He walked past the florist.(6) He did
not go into the florist. He went into the bank.(3) He did not go
as far as the bookstore. He went as far as the bank. He went up
stairs in the bank.(7) Then he went down stairs in the bank.(8)
 Then he went back past the florist. He did not go back through
 the drug store. He went around the corner.(9) Then he went back
through the park.(1) He went from his home to the bank. Then he
 went from the bank to his house.

Exercise:

- Students describe John's activities using the picture without reference to the text.
- Students describe teacher's activities as he walks past the desk, as far as the windows, etc.

VII. Conversations (for memorization)

- [du yə hæv ʃən] for ə [dælər]
 - [yēs aɪ hæv tu hæf dælərz]
 - [tæŋk yu]

2. a. [ðæts ten dælərz ən fifti sents]
 b. [wɪl jə əksept ə ʧæk ər ðə jə prɪfər kæʃ]
 a. [ðə jə hæv sem ɛdentɪfɪkəsən]
 b. [aɪ hæv maɪ pæspɔrt]
 a. [ə ʧæk ɪz faɪn]

VIII. Supplement

1. John received a \$100 check from Venezuela. The bank gave him ten ten-dollar bills.

John cashed [kæʃt] his check in the bank.



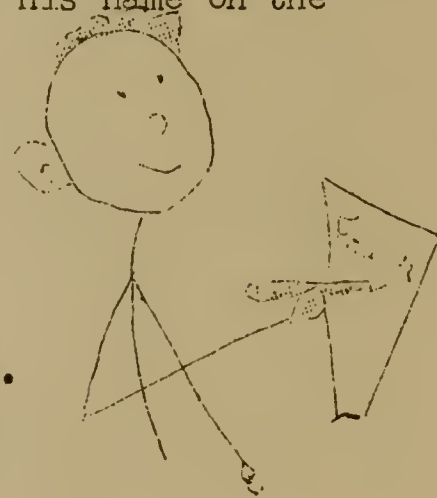
2. James received a \$100 check from Colombia. James opened an account. The bank accepted the money and gave John a book with \$100 marked in it.

James deposited [dɪpəzɪtəd] his check in the bank.



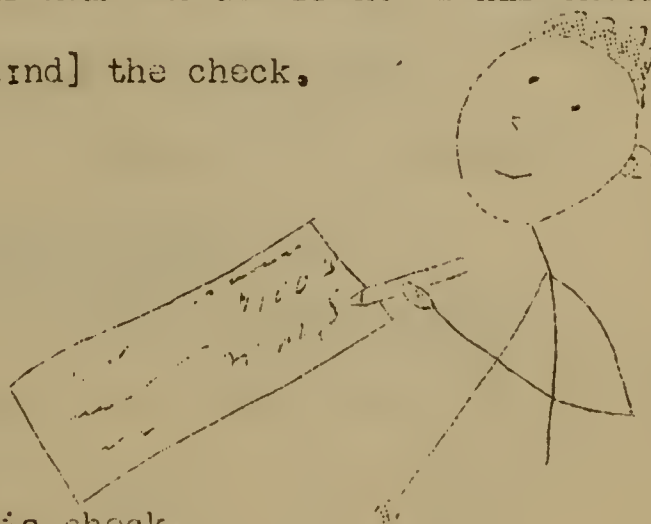
3. Frank received a check from Ecuador. He wrote his name on the back of it.

Frank endorsed [ɪndɔːst] the check.



4. Henry wrote his name on the front of his check.

He signed [saɪnd] the check.



Exercise:

John signed his check.

1 2

1. signed, endorsed, cashed
 2. check, letter, application

LESSON VI
VOCABULARY

I. Observe the use of say and tell in the examples:

The clerk said to him, "This red and blue tie is very nice."

The clerk told him, "This red and blue tie is very nice."

The clerk said, "This is pretty."

John told him, "No, that's too bright."

What did he say?

What did he tell you?

What did he say to you?



The words say and tell are used in approximately the same situations. They are grammatically dissimilar. (Grammar Lesson VIII.)

II. Colors

He is wearing a dark red tie.

1. dark, light

2. red, black, green, white, gray, yellow

3. tie, suit, shirt

Teacher indicates color of students' shirts, ties, suits, etc.

III. Conversation (For memorization)

a. [me aɪ hɛlp yu]

b. [yēs pliz, aɪd lɑ:k tə baɪ ə taɪ]

a. [wɛt kɛlər]

b. [blu aɪ tɪŋk]

a. [ðɪs rɛd ən blu taɪ ɪz vɛrɪ najs]

b. [nɔ ðats tu brart]

a. [ðɪs ɛz prɪti]

b. [yēs aɪl tɛk et haʊ mæʃ ɪz et]

a. [wɛn dælər ən fɔrtɪ faɪv sɛnts ɔŋk yu]

IV. The words talk, speak, and ask, answer

1. Observe the use of speak in these examples.

John speaks Spanish very well.

Mary speaks French.

Juan is learning to speak English.

The word speak is frequently used with the name of a language.

2. Observe the use of talk in these examples.

We talked about Peru for an hour.

We talked about John.

Mr. Cardenas is going to talk about economics.

Mr. Cardenas is going to talk.

The word talk is frequently used for an informal conversation and also for a formal oral presentation. The word about follows talk and precedes the subject of the conversation.

Observe the use of about and to in these examples.

I talked to him last night.
Who did you talk to?
I talked to him about it.
We talked about John.
We talked to John.

The word to follows talk and precedes the person with whom one converses.

Exercise:

I talked to John about economics.
 1 2

1. John, Mary, Henry, Juan, Tomas
2. economics, philosophy, democracy, Robert

3. Observe the use of the words ask and answer [ánsər].

The clerk asked, "What color?"
John answered, "Blue, I think."

The clerk asked the question. John answered it.

The word ask is frequently used when the word question or a sentence having question form follows it.

The word answer is frequently used to indicate the response to a question.

V. The words near, far from, and up, down

1. Observe the use of near and far from in these examples.

Ann Arbor is near Detroit.
Ann Arbor is far from Chicago.

Ann Arbor is near Chicago.
Ann Arbor is far from Los Angeles.

The word near indicates RELATIVE proximity in these examples.

The word far from indicates RELATIVE distance in these examples.

Exercise:

Ann Arbor is near Detroit₁ and far from Chicago₂.

1. Detroit, Chicago, Cleveland, New York
2. Chicago, Los Angeles, Miami, Buenos Aires

2. Observe the use of up and down in these examples.

The airplane went up in Chicago.

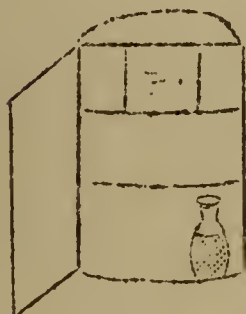
The airplane came down in Mexico City.

Up and down sometimes indicate direction on a vertical scale.

VI. Some of the little words of English are difficult to learn because they appear to have a different use each time they are encountered. This is not really the case. These words appear regularly in different patterns. It is important to understand the patterns explained here. In order to make the contrast clear, the important examples all contain in. The conclusions have valid applications to other words similar to in.

Pattern 1. The word in sometimes has a relation to real experience and does not primarily depend on other parts of the sentence.

The milk is in the refrigerator.



Note: The words on, beside are substitutes for in when the real experience changes.



The milk is on the refrigerator.



The milk is beside the refrigerator.

(Review Lesson V,
Parts V and VI.)

(Review Lesson V, Parts V and VI)

Pattern 2. The use of the word in is sometimes determined by the meaning of the word following it.

John arrived in June

Note: The words on, at are substituted for in when the unit of time changes.

John arrived on Tuesday.

John arrived at six.

(Review Lesson I, Part V;
Lesson IV, Part I.)

Pattern 3. The use of the word in is sometimes determined by the particular word preceding it.

John persisted in the plan. He persisted.

Note: The words on, to are substituted for in when the particular word persist changes.

John insisted on the plan. He insisted.

John listened to the plan. He listened.

Pattern 4. The use of the word in is sometimes determined by the particular word preceding it, entering into a meaning combination with it.

John broke in his new pipe.
(Juan curo su pipa nueva.)

Note: If the word up is substituted for in the entire meaning changes.

John broke up his new pipe.
(Juan rompio su pipa nueva en muchos pedazos.)

The teacher will help you to relate new expressions the these patterns.

LESSON VII

VOCABULARY

- I. Observe the use of for, until, before, after, afterwards, in the following paragraph.

John and James wanted haircuts. John went to the barber yesterday. He waited for an hour. He waited until four. He waited until then. James went to the barber today. He waited for an hour also. The barber was busy until now. He was in the English House before his haircut. He is going to go to the movies after his haircut. He is going to go to the English House afterwards.

1. The word for in expressions of time.

John waited for an hour.
 ten minutes.
 three days.
 a long time.

The word for frequently precedes a unit of time or an expression using the word time.

2. The word during in expressions of time.

John talked during the program.
 the concert.
 the class.
 the discussion.

The word during frequently precedes the name of an event, not a unit of time or the word time.

Exercise:

John talked for an hour.
 1 2

1. for, during
2. the concert, ten minutes, the class, the program

3. The word until in expressions of time.

James studied until 10.
 late
 then
 now
 midnight

The word until precedes a word indicating the final point of a period of time.

The expression as far as precedes a word indicating the final point of a trip. (Lesson V Part VI.)

They traveled as far as Chicago.
1 2

1. until, as far as
2. evening, 10 p.m., Chicago, noon, Cleveland, Detroit

4. The words before and after in expressions of time.

1. He had dinner before 8 p.m.
He had dinner at 7 p.m.
2. He went to the movies after 8 p.m.
He went to the movies at 8:30.

Exercise:

March is before June.
1 2

1. before, after
2. January, February, April, May

5. The words after and afterwards.

Observe the use of after and afterwards.

He studied after class.
He studied afterwards.

Mary had ice cream after supper.
Mary had ice cream afterwards.

A word like class, supper, follows the word after.

In general these words are related to Pattern I in Lesson VI.

II. The words illustrated here represent relative points on a scale.
There are frequently two major points on the scale.

Observe the following examples.

The ball is big.

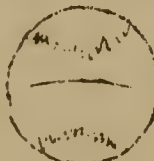


The ball is small.



Meanings between the two points are often indicated by other words which precede them.

The ball is very big.



The ball is big.



The ball is small.



The ball is very small.

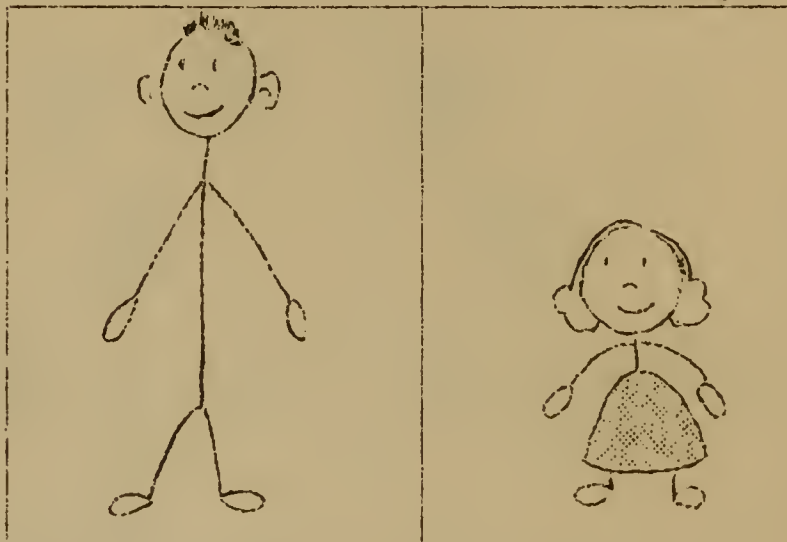
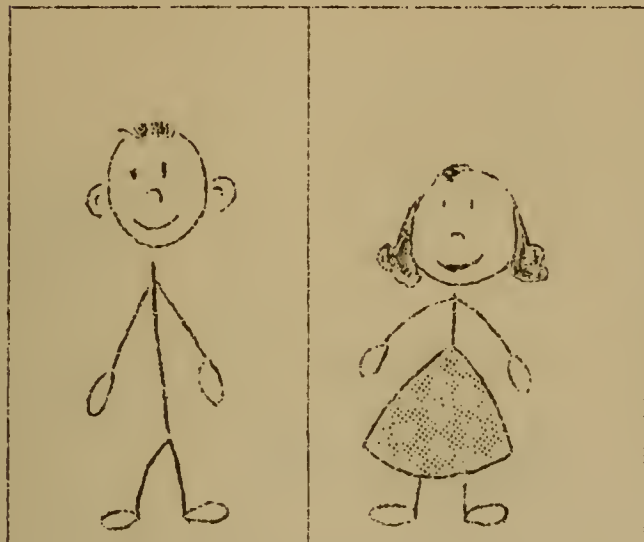


John is tall.

Mary is short.

Henry is very tall.

Catherine is very
short.



A word of this class sometimes has a position on two scales.

Observe the following examples.

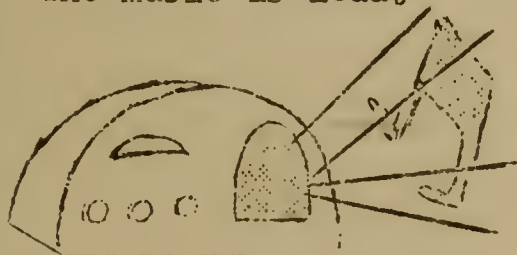
The music is soft.



The butter is soft.



The music is loud.



The butter is hard.



3. The illustrations that follow describe some words of this type.

1

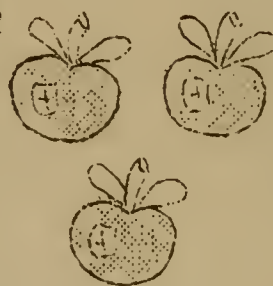


A snail is slow.
This is a slow
snail

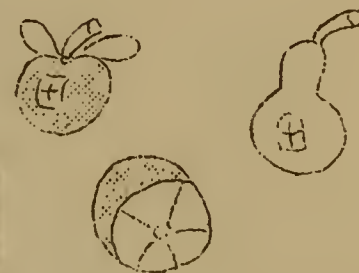


An airplane is
fast.
This is a fast
airplane.

2



These are similar.
They are similar
fruit.



These are different.
They are different
fruit.

3

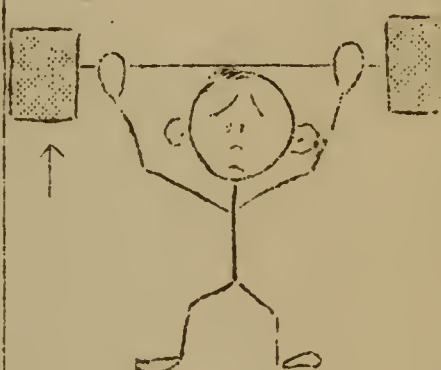


The airplane is
high.
It is a high
airplane.

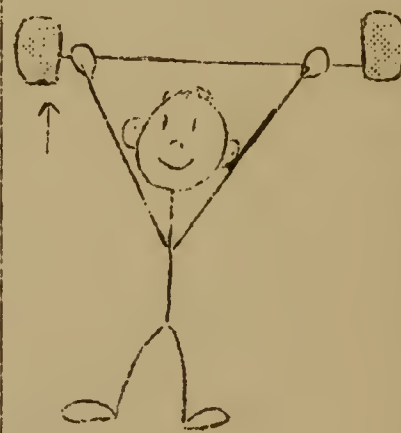


The airplane is low.
It is a low air-
plane.

4



It is heavy.
It is a heavy weight.



It is light.
It is a light
weight.

5

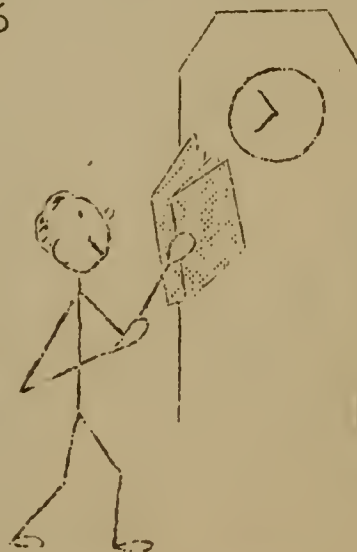


John is sad.
He is a sad man.



Mary is happy.
She is a happy
girl

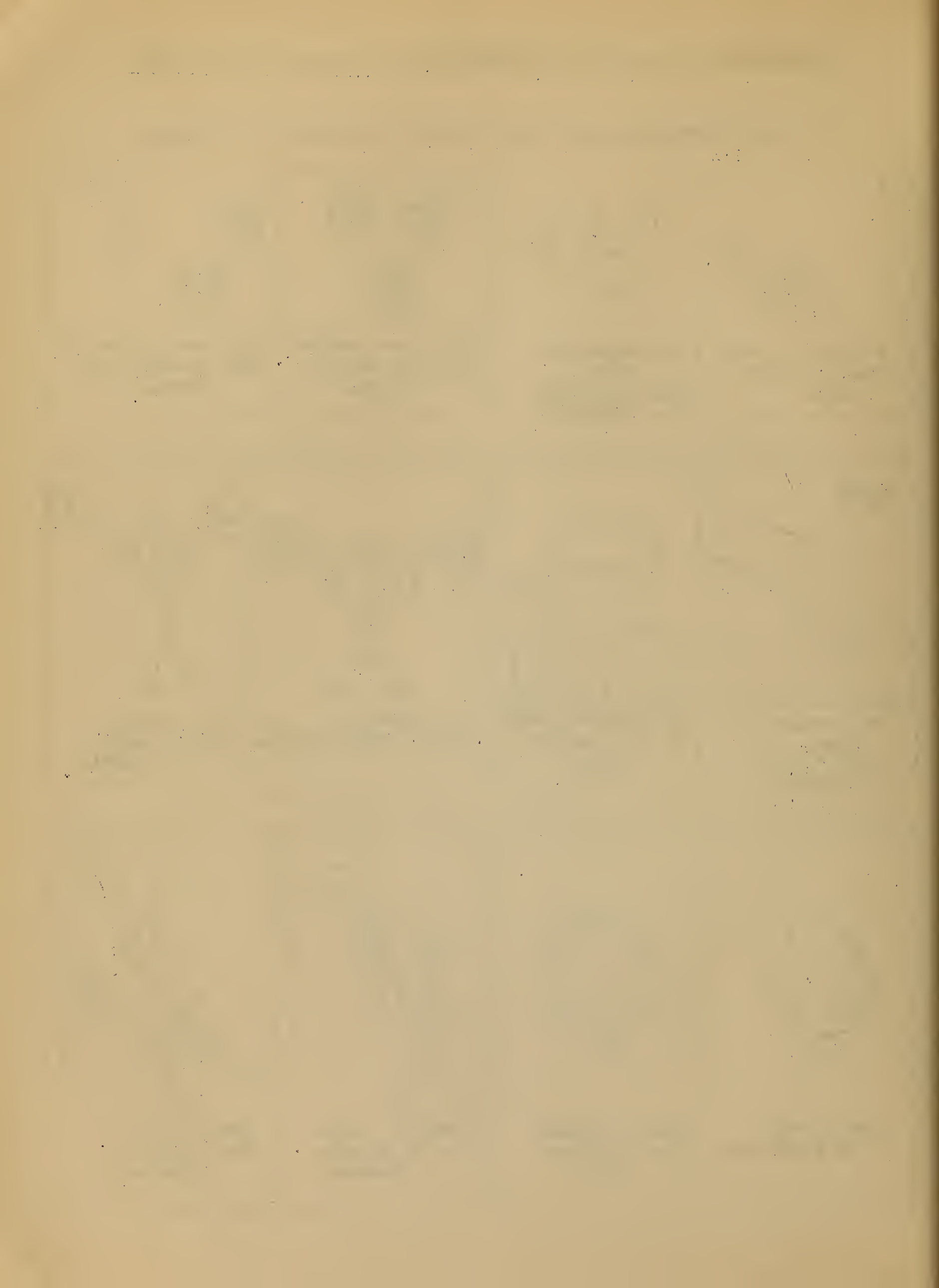
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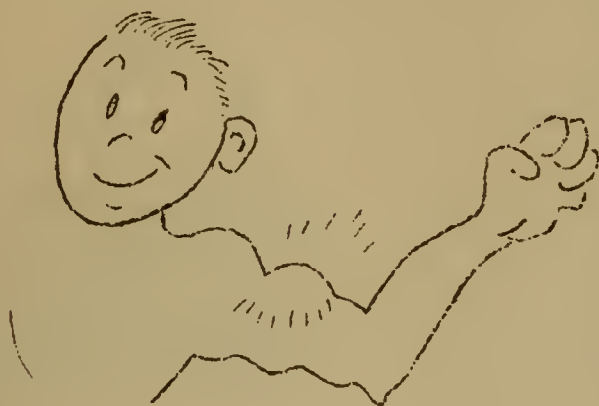
John is early.
He is an early
student.



Mary is late.
Mary is a late
student.



7



John is strong.
He is a strong man.



James is weak.
He is a weak man.

8



The street is narrow.
It's a narrow street.



The street is wide.
It's a wide street.

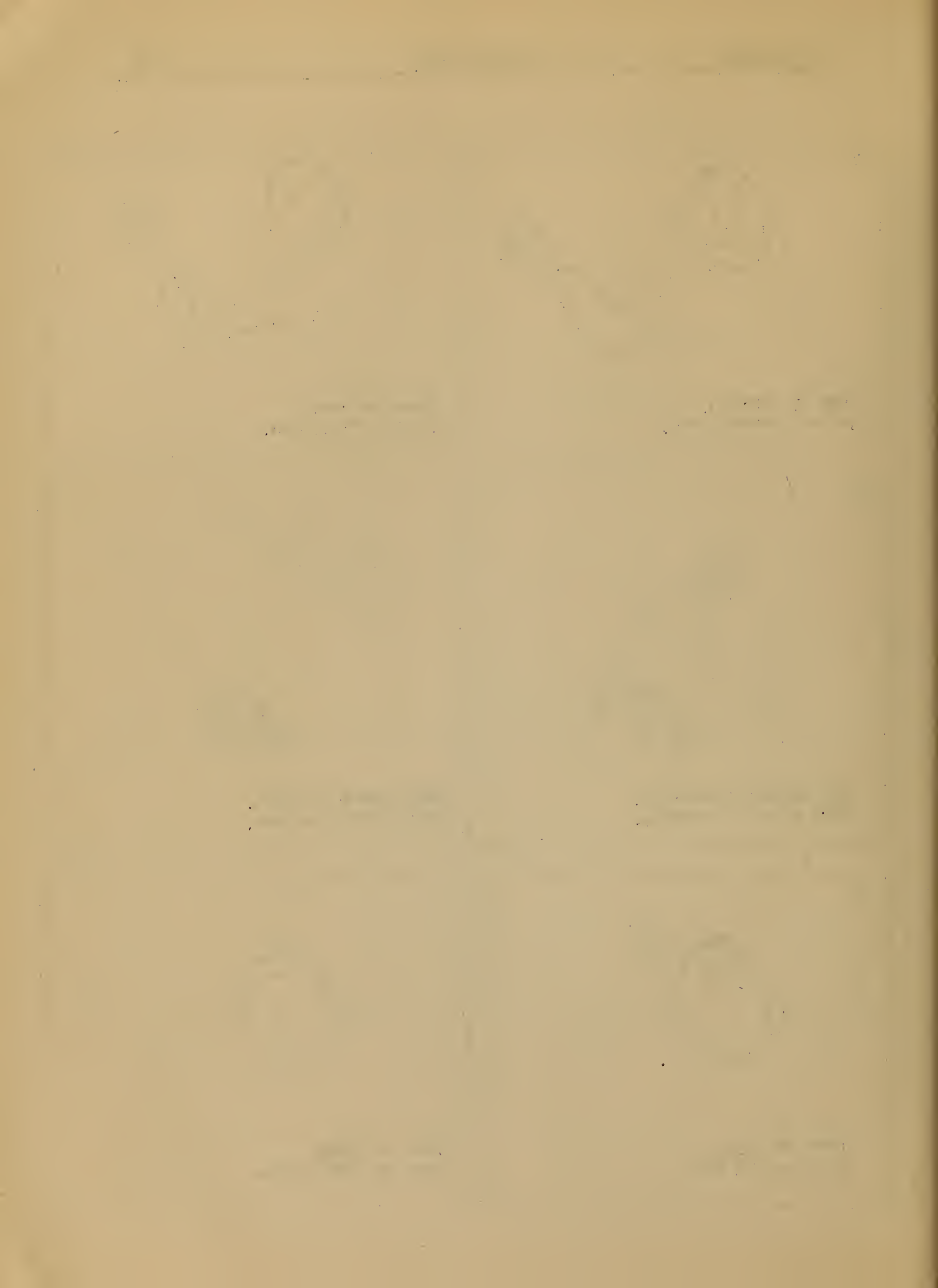
9



James is sick.
He is a sick man.



John is well.
John is a well man.



10

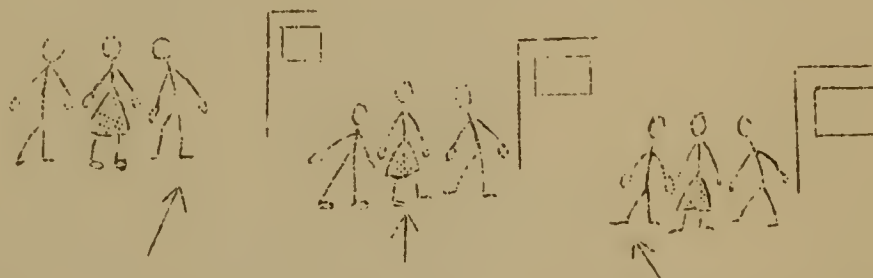


John is fat.
He's a fat man.



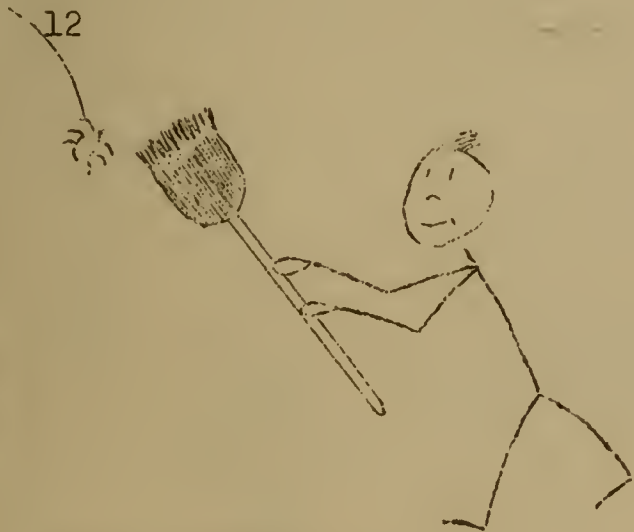
James is thin.
He's a thin man.

11



John is first. Mary is next. James is last.

12



John is brave.
He is a brave man.



Mary is afraid.

Note: Afraid appears in only this position.



13

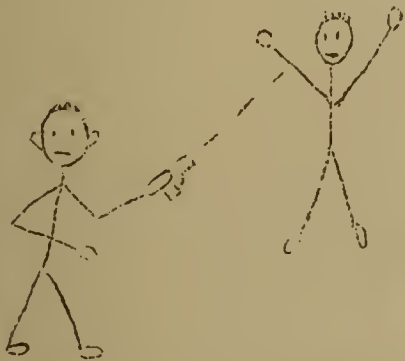


It is a good day.

James is a good man.



It is a rainy day.



John is a bad man.



14

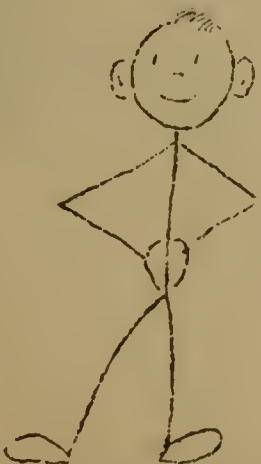


The tie is old.

The man is old.

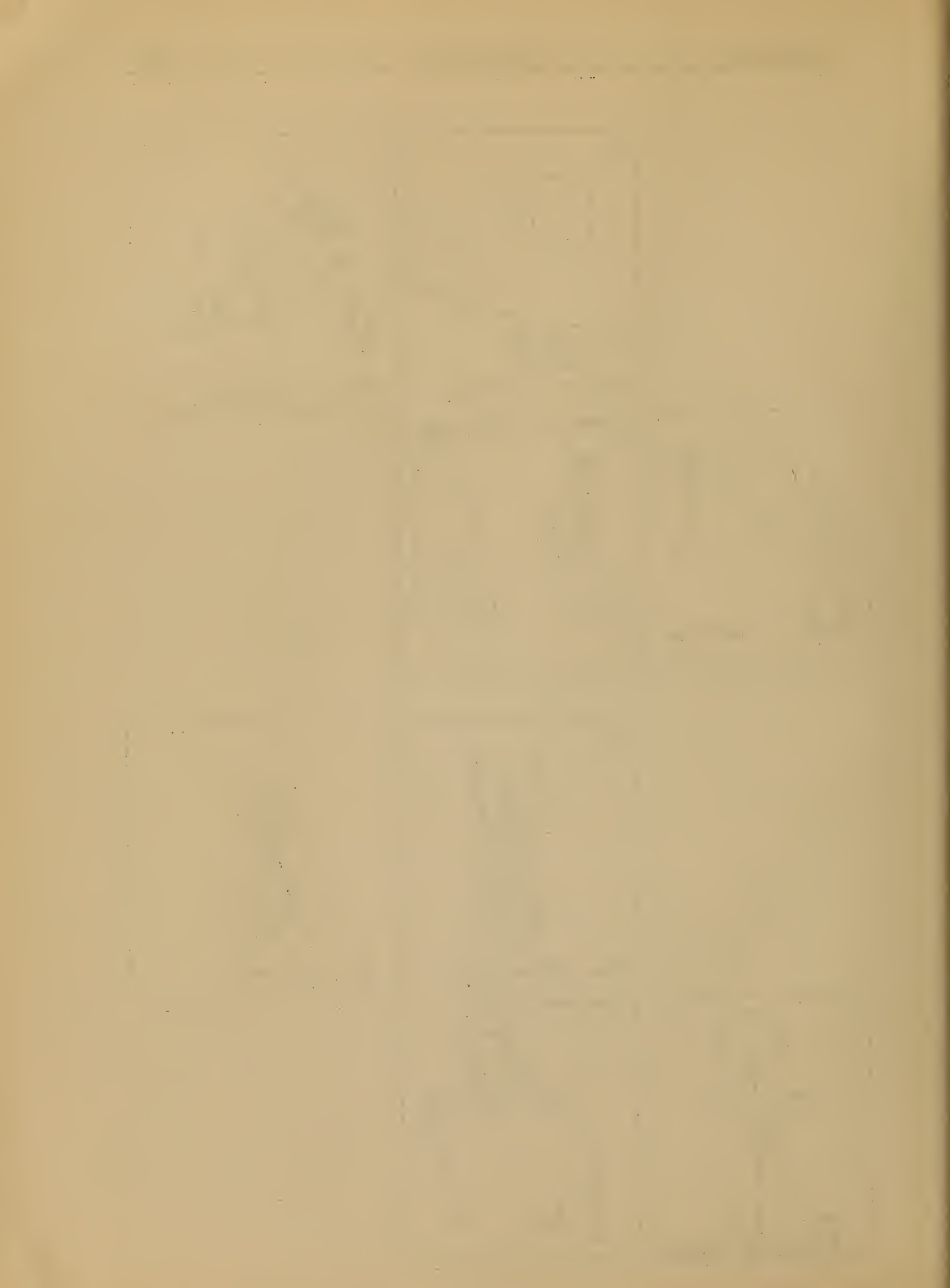


The tie is new.



The boy is young.



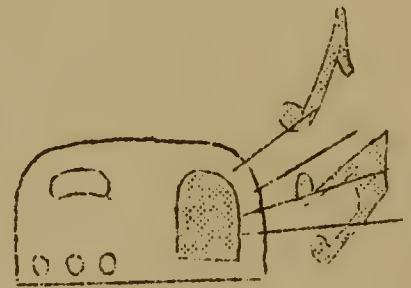


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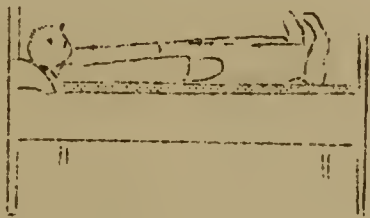


The music is soft.

The bed is soft.

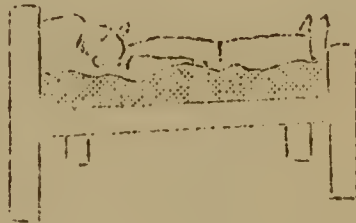


The music is loud.



The bed is hard.

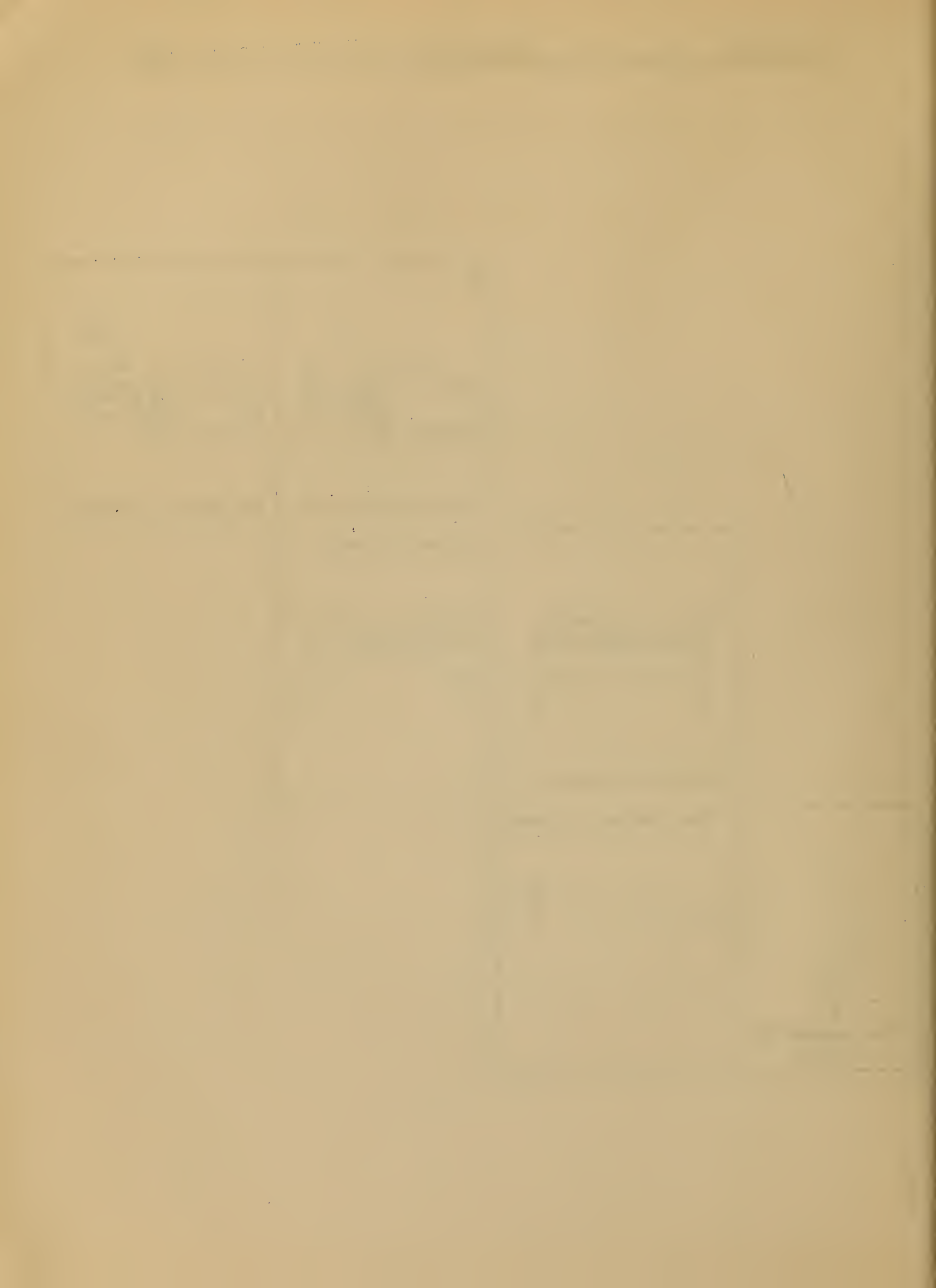
The problem is hard.



$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ + 2 \\ \hline ? \end{array}$$

The problem is
easy.

$$x^2 + 2^2 + \frac{3^2}{7} - 5 + 7 = ?$$



III. Conversations (for memorization)

At the barber

Barber: [nekst pliz. hau wud yu laik it]
 John: [trim it klos an ðə saɪdz ən bæk, bət dont tek
 meɪ of ðə tʌp]
 Barber: [yes sɜr ɪz ðæt hau yu laik it]
 John: [yes ðæts faɪn]
 Barber: [du yu want sɜm wɔtər an it]
 John: [no θæŋk yu]

At the cleaners

Mary: [ðərz ə spat an ðə sli:v. kən yu tek it aʊt]
 Clerk: [yes wi kən tek it aʊt]
 Mary: [ðərz ə rɪp ɪn ðə skɜ:t əv ðə drɛs
 kən yu fiks it]
 Clerk: [yes wi kən fiks it]
 Mary: [wɛn kən ɪt bi rɛdi]
 Clerk: [əbaʊt wɛnzdeɪ hɪrɪz jʊr rɪsɪt]
 Mary: [θæŋk yu]

There's a spot on the
sleeve.



There's a rip in the
skirt.



Here's your receipt.



LESSON VIII

VOCABULARY

I. What time is it?



It's 7:05 [its séven faiv]

It's 7:15 [its séven fiftín]



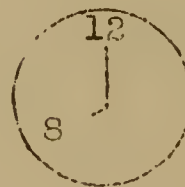
It's 7:30 [its séven éértí]

It's 7:40 [its séven fórtí]



It's 7:50 [its séven fíftí]

It's 8:00 [its et]



The regular formula for expressions of time is hours: minutes,
e.g. seven:forty-five.

Exercise:

The teacher draws clocks on the blackboard, asking the students the question What time is it?

II. Other expressions of time.

at 7:15 [séven fiftín]

quarter after seven
quarter past seven
fifteen after seven
fifteen past seven

at 7:30 [séven éértí]

half past seven

at 7:20 [séven twéntí]

twenty after seven
twenty past seven

at 7:45 [séven fórtí faiv]

quarter of eight
quarter to eight
fifteen of eight
fifteen to eight

These irregular expressions of time are for recognition.

The first part of the paper is devoted to a discussion of the general principles of the theory of the structure of the atom. It is shown that the structure of the atom is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, which are based on the principle of the conservation of energy and the principle of the conservation of momentum. The structure of the atom is determined by the laws of quantum mechanics, which are based on the principle of the conservation of energy and the principle of the conservation of momentum.

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Exercise:

Teacher: It's half past seven. What time is it?
1

Student: It's seven thirty.
2

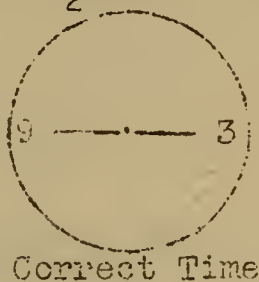
1. half past seven, quarter to six, five of ten, etc.
2. seven thirty, five forty-five, nine fifty-five, etc.

III. The time words fast and slow.
1 2

Is your watch right?



My watch is fast.
My watch is 5 minutes fast.



Correct Time



His watch is slow.
His watch is 5 minutes slow.



Her watch is always right.
Her watch keeps good time.

IV. The addition of one or two special syllables often changes the lexical or grammatical meaning of a word.

A. Words ending in -er.¹

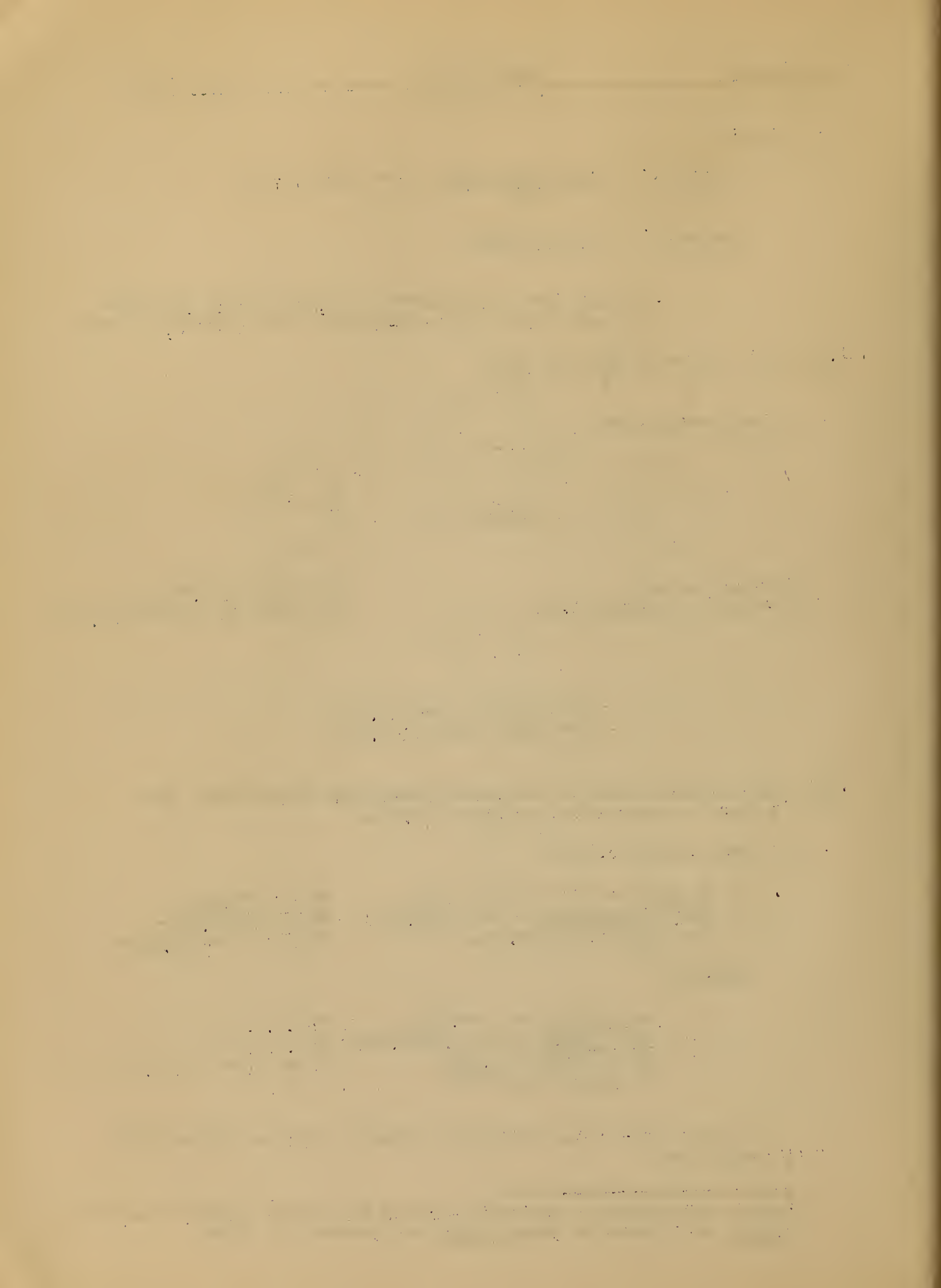
- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1. He <u>swims</u> at the athletic club. | He's a <u>swimmer</u> . |
| She is <u>beginning</u> to study English. | She's a <u>beginner</u> . |
| They <u>help</u> the custodian. | They are his <u>helpers</u> . |

Exercise:

He <u>advises</u> the students.	He's an . . .
She <u>teaches</u> at the University.	She's a . . .
He is going to <u>speak</u> .	He is going to be the . . .
He <u>flies</u> airplanes.	He is a . . .

Words ending in -er frequently indicate a person that performs a certain act.

¹Note: Occasionally a word ending in -er can belong either to 1. or 2.
Speaker is a person or thing; ruler is a person or a thing



- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 2. This <u>opens</u> bottles. | It's an <u>opener</u> . |
| That <u>contains</u> paper. | It's a <u>container</u> . |
| That machine <u>sharpens</u> pencils. | It's a <u>sharpener</u> . |
| This <u>lights</u> cigarettes. | It's a <u>lighter</u> . |

Exercise:

- | | |
|--|---------------|
| This machine <u>typewrites</u> . | It's a . . . |
| This <u>erases</u> . | It's an . . . |
| This <u>transmits</u> radio
messages. | It's a . . . |
| This liquid <u>cleans</u> suits. | It's a . . . |

B. Words ending in -able (-ible)

- | | |
|---|---|
| I <u>believe</u> his story. | His story is <u>believable</u> . |
| We <u>like</u> him. | He is <u>likeable</u> . |
| The teacher <u>accepted</u> the
examination. | The examination was <u>acceptable</u> . |

Exercise:

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|
| I <u>enjoy</u> Blasco Ibanez' books. | They are . . . |
| I can <u>wash</u> this shirt. | It is . . . |
| Don't <u>break</u> this dish. | It is . . . |

C. Words ending in -ful.

- | | |
|--|-------------------------|
| He has <u>hopes</u> of passing the
examination. | He is <u>hopeful</u> . |
| She takes <u>care</u> of her clothes. | She is <u>careful</u> . |
| There are many <u>colors</u> in the
dress. | It is <u>colorful</u> . |

Exercise:

- | | |
|---|------------------------|
| He has a lot of <u>respect</u> for
his doctor. | He is . . . |
| Switzerland has been at <u>peace</u>
for many decades. | It is a . . . country. |

Figure 1 consists of a 3x3 grid of scatter plots. The rows are labeled 'Number of children' with values 1, 2, and 3. The columns are labeled 'Number of children in the household' with values 1, 2, and 3. Each plot shows a positive correlation between the two variables. The plots are arranged in a grid where the x-axis represents the 'Number of children in the household' and the y-axis represents the 'Number of children'.

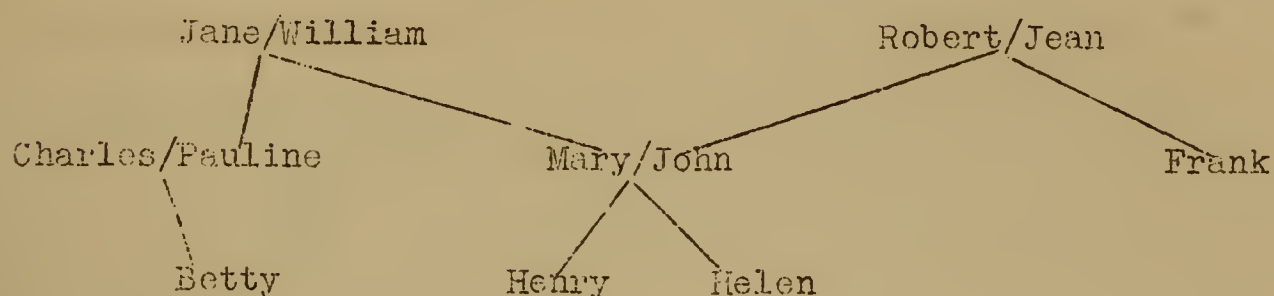
Review the cognate endings mentioned in the introductory material

Notice the grammatical differences indicated in the chart below:

	<u>open</u>	<u>opener.</u>	
Mary She	<u>opened</u> <u>has</u>	the bottle. an <u>opener.</u>	
	<u>swim</u>	<u>swimmer</u>	
John He	<u>swims</u> <u>is</u>	a <u>swimmer.</u>	
	<u>believe</u>		<u>believable</u>
They The story	<u>believed</u> <u>is</u>	the story.	<u>believable.</u>
		<u>hope</u>	<u>hopeful</u>
He He	has <u>is</u>	<u>hope</u>	<u>hopeful.</u>

Observe that the words in each column have a grammatical similarity.

V. Supplement



1. Henry is a boy; Helen is a girl.
John is their father.
Mary is their mother.
John and Mary are their parents.
Henry and Helen are their (John's and Mary's) children.
Henry is their child.
Helen is their child.
2. Pauline and Mary are sisters.
John and Frank are brothers.
Helen and Henry are sister and brother.
3. Pauline is Henry's aunt.
Pauline is Helen's aunt.
Charles is Henry's uncle.
Frank is their uncle, also.
Mary and John are Betty's aunt and uncle.
4. Jane is Mary's mother.
Mary is Henry's mother.
Jane is Henry's grandmother.
William is Mary's father.
Mary is Henry's mother.
William is Henry's grandfather.
5. Betty is Mary's niece.
Helen is Pauline's niece.
Henry is Pauline's nephew.
6. Betty is Henry's cousin.
Henry is Betty's cousin.
7. John is Pauline's brother-in-law.
Pauline is John's sister-in-law.
Jane is John's mother-in-law.
William is John's father-in-law.
John is William's and Jane's son-in-law.
Mary is Jean's and Robert's daughter-in-law.

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LESSON IX

VOCABULARY

I. Describing people.

1. He is a tall man.

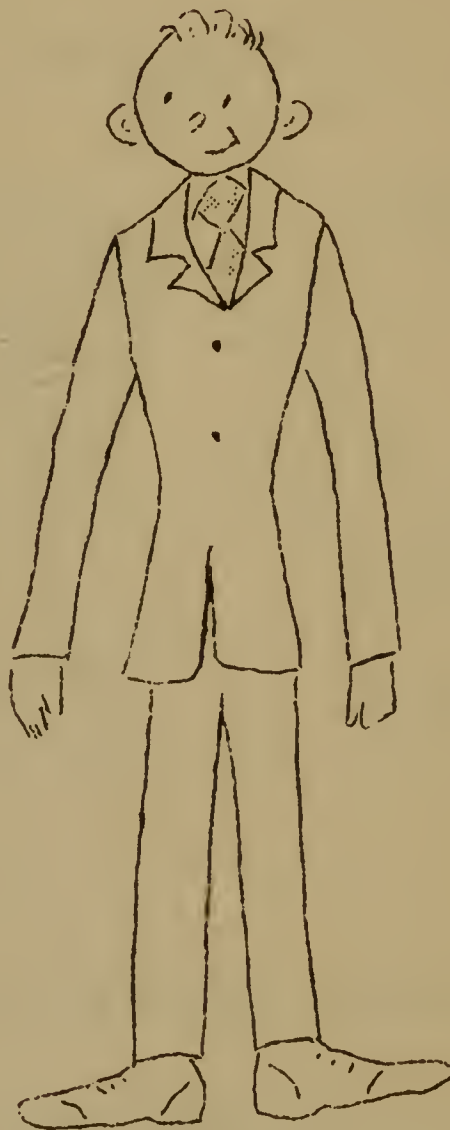
short

thin

fat



John



Frank



Henry



James

Exercise:

John is tall and fat
1 2

1. John, Frank, Henry, James
2. tall and fat, tall and thin
short and fat, short and thin

2. She is a blond.
brunet.
red-head.

He has blond hair.
brunet
red



His hair is straight.



His hair is curly.



His hair is wavy.

3. He has a dark complexion
light

Exercise:

Use the following paragraph as a frame to describe a friend in the class.

John is tall and thin. He is a brunet. His hair is curly. His complexion is light.

II. Can (could), may, must, might.1. can

Pedro can speak Spanish. Ana can speak Spanish.
He can't speak Chinese. She can't speak Italian.

I can speak English.
I can't speak Japanese.

Exercise:

Pedro can speak Spanish.
1 2 3

1. They, John, Mary, I, the boy, the girl, my teacher, etc.
2. read, write, understand
3. Italian, German, French, Chinese, Japanese, Dutch, etc.

Additional exercises:

Use the following paragraph as a frame to construct similar stories.

John can speak English. He is an American. He can't speak Chinese.

Mr. Wong can read Chinese. He is Chinese. He can't read German.

Pedro couldn't speak English three months ago.
He could speak Spanish three months ago.

Ana couldn't write English five months ago.
Ana could write Spanish three months ago.

Ana and Pedro couldn't understand English four months ago.
They could understand Spanish a few months ago.

Exercise:

Pedro could speak English three months ago.
1 2 3 4

1. Jose, John, Mary, we, you, they, John and William
2. speak, read, write, understand, translate, spell, etc.
3. French, Italian, German, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish
4. four months ago, seven months ago, two years ago

Additional exercise:

Use the following paragraph as a frame to construct similar stories.

Manuel Jimenez is a doctor. He couldn't perform an operation 10 years ago. He couldn't practice medicine 10 years ago.

1. 2. 3.

Miss Williams is a teacher. She couldn't teach English 10 years ago. She could teach Spanish. She could speak Spanish. She could read Spanish.

2. May

The teacher asks permission of the students to perform various activities in the classroom. The students answer yes or no.

May I write your name?
take your pencil?
use your pen?
write the example?
speak Spanish?

Exercise:

The students ask the teacher for permission to perform various activities in the classroom.

May I help you?
1

1. speak Spanish, speak English, go to the blackboard, go to the program

3. Must

The teacher uses the professions and plans of the students to introduce must, constructing sentences like the following:

A doctor must study medicine for many years.
You must practice English.
You must not speak Spanish in class.
We must come to class on time. We must not be late.

Exercise:

T. I want to learn English. (speak)
S. You must speak it.
T. I want a ticket. (buy)
S. You must buy it.

Additional exercise:

He wants to speak English. (practice)
They want to understand Chinese. (listen to)
They want to pronounce English correctly. (imitate)
He likes to speak Spanish. (stop)

Students tell of plans they must complete, courses they must take, etc.

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4. Night

Observe the following conversations:

- A. What are you going to do tonight?
 B. I don't know. I might go to the movies or I might go to the concert, or I might go to the program.
- A. Where are you going to study tonight?
 B. I don't know. I might study in my room or I might study in the library.

Exercise:

The teacher asks the following questions.

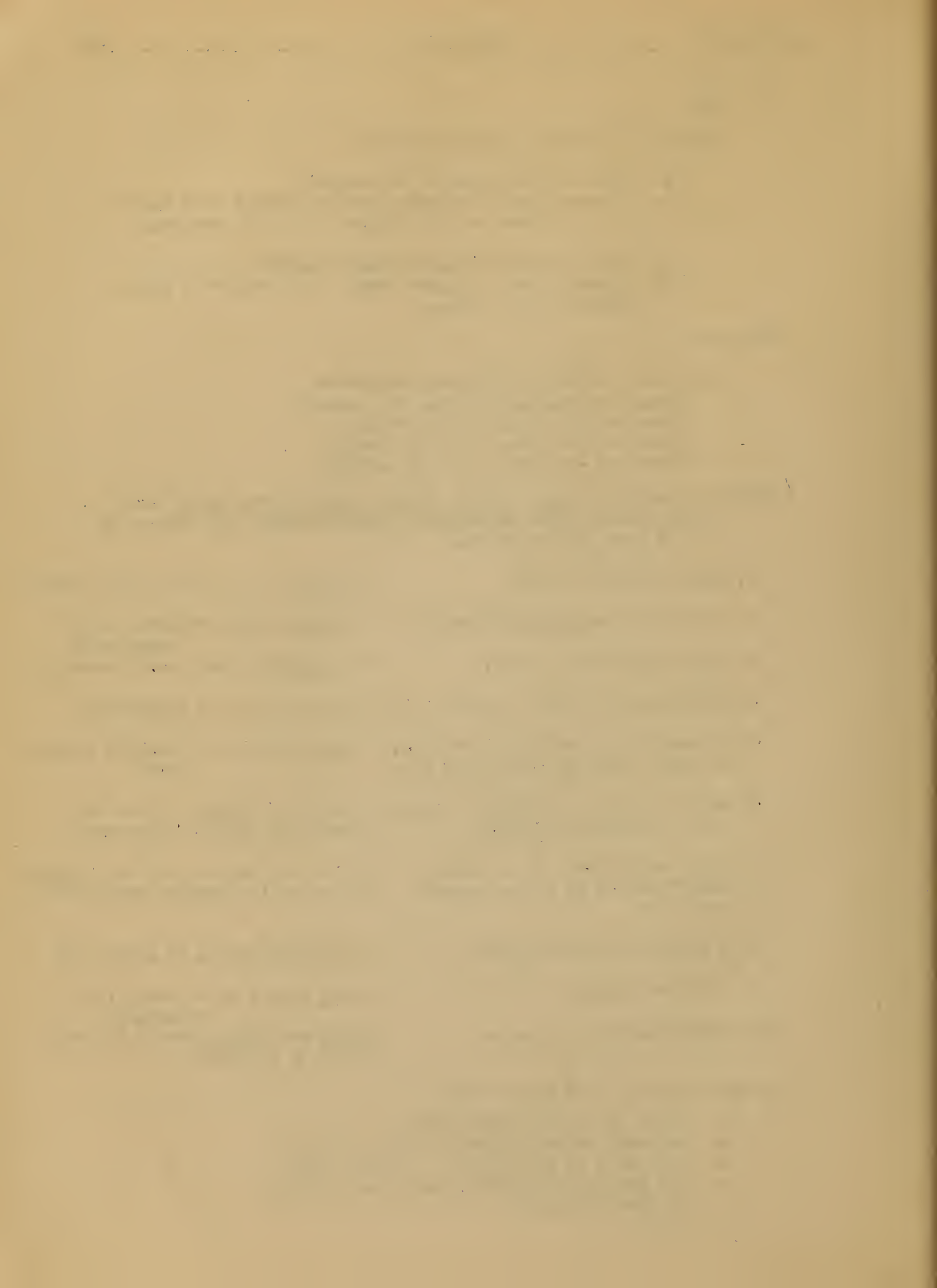
- Where are you going after the course?
 When are you going to the movies?
 What are you going to study tonight?
 What are you going to read tonight?

NOTE: You will hear can, could, shall, should, must, would used with various other meanings. These meanings will usually be clear from the situation.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. John was born in 1930. | He <u>must</u> be 20 years old. (I suppose) |
| 2. I have an examination tomorrow. | I <u>should</u> study tonight. (it is advisable) |
| 3. John usually comes at 9. | He <u>should</u> be here soon. (Probably) |
| 4. John's mother said, "You may go." | He <u>can</u> go. (It is permitted) |
| 5. John's sister asked him for \$100. He isn't going to give it to her. | I <u>would</u> give it to her. (If I were John) |
| 6. Mary is cold. It might be a good idea to close the window. | John asks, " <u>Shall</u> I close the window?" (Mary says, "Please.") |
| 7. John loves Mary. He is going to ask, "Can you go to the concert with me?" | He is very polite. He says, " <u>Could</u> you go to the concert with me?" |
| 8. I would like to sing, but | I'd <u>rather</u> dance. (I prefer it) |
| 9. I'm very tired. | I <u>had better</u> go to bed. (It is desirable) |
| 10. Would you like to sing or | <u>Would</u> you <u>rather</u> dance? (Do you prefer to dance?) |

5. Conversation (for memorization)

- a. [hwer ar yu goin æfter |diner]
 b. [ai maɪt go tə ðə |muvɪz hwer ar |yʊ goɪn]
 a. [aɪm goɪn tə ðə |laɪbrəri aɪ məst |steɪ]
 b. [aɪ kən go tə ðə |muvɪz təmɒrə me aɪ go tə |laɪbrəri wið yu]
 a. [yes]



LESSON X

VOCABULARY

Review

I. Practice these conversations from memory. You should know all of them well.

1. A: Virginia, this is Tomas Carillo. He's from Cuba.

B: How do you do.

C: How do you do.

A: Mr. Lane, this is Mr. Gomez. Mr. Gomez is a lawyer.

B: How do you do, Mr. Gomez. How are you?

C: Very well, thank you. How are you?

B: Just fine, thank you.

2. Mrs. Evans: Dinner's ready.

Mr. Evans: All right.

Visitor: Fine!

(They sit down)

Mr. Evans: Please pass the salt and pepper.

Visitor: Certainly.

Mr. Evans: Thank you.

Visitor: You're welcome.

Mrs. Evans: Please pass the sugar.

Visitor: Certainly.

3. First student: Where do you live?

Second student: At 1111 Catherine Street.

First student: I'm living on State Street. Where is your sister now?

Second student: She lives in Ypsilanti.

First student: What is her telephone number?

Second student: It's 2-4957.

4. A: Do you have change for a dollar?

B: Yes, I have two half-dollars.

A: Thank you.

Clerk: That's \$10.50.

Student: Will you take a check or do you prefer cash?

Clerk: Do you have some identification?

Student: I have my passport.

Clerk: A check is fine.

5. Clerk: May I help you?

Student: Yes, please. I'd like to buy a tie.

Clerk: What color.

Student: Blue, I think.

Clerk: This red and blue tie is very nice.

Student: No, that's too bright.

Clerk: This is pretty.

Student: Yes, I'll take it. How much is it?

Clerk: One dollar and forty-five cents. Thank you.

THE FIRST OF THE YEAR 1880

THE SECOND OF THE YEAR 1880

THE THIRD OF THE YEAR 1880

THE FOURTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE FIFTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE SIXTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE SEVENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE EIGHTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE NINTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE TENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE ELEVENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE TWELFTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE THIRTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE FOURTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE FIFTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE SIXTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE SEVENTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

THE EIGHTEENTH OF THE YEAR 1880

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THE TWENTY-FIRST OF THE YEAR 1880

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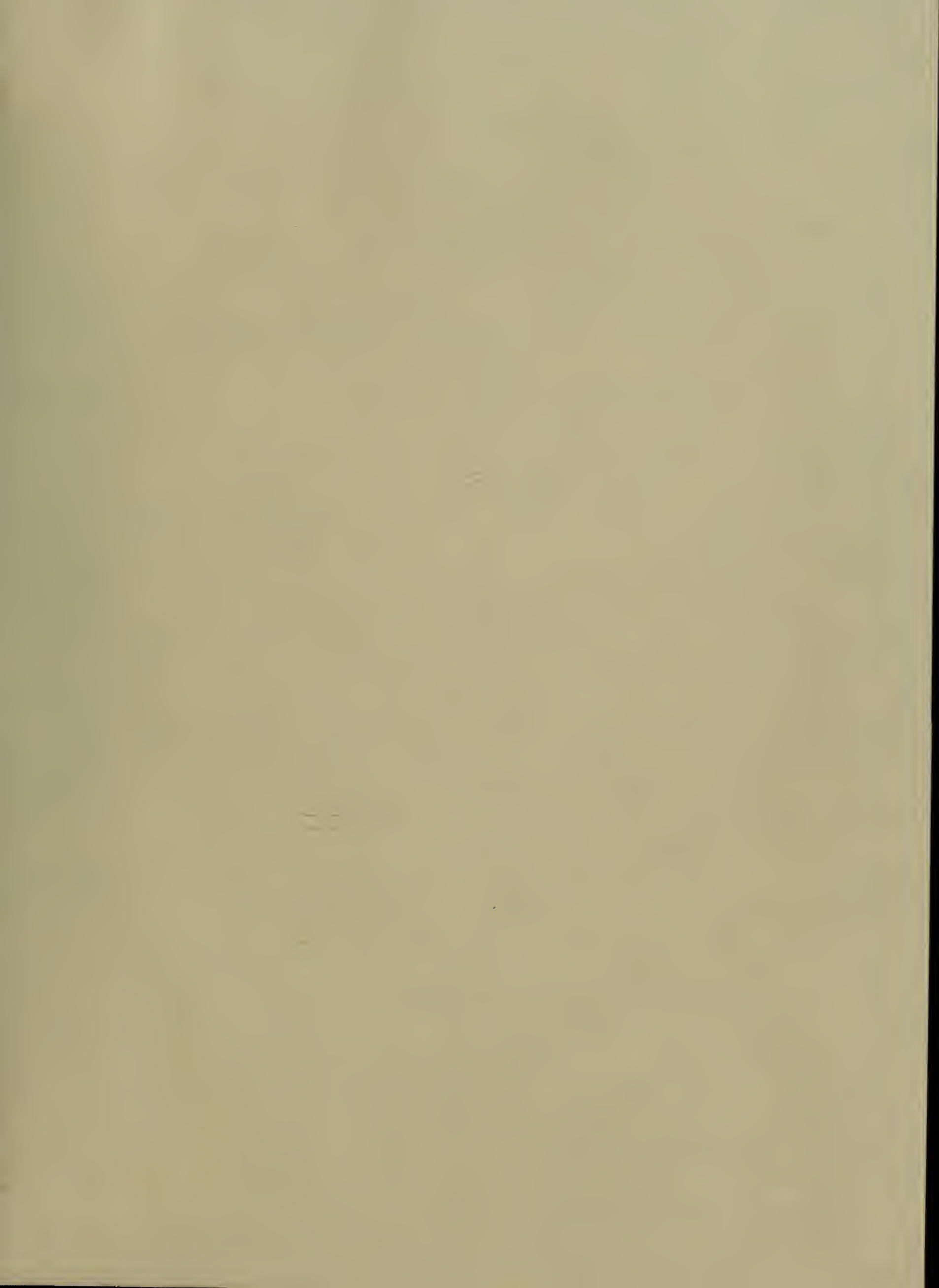
THE FORTIETH OF THE YEAR 1880

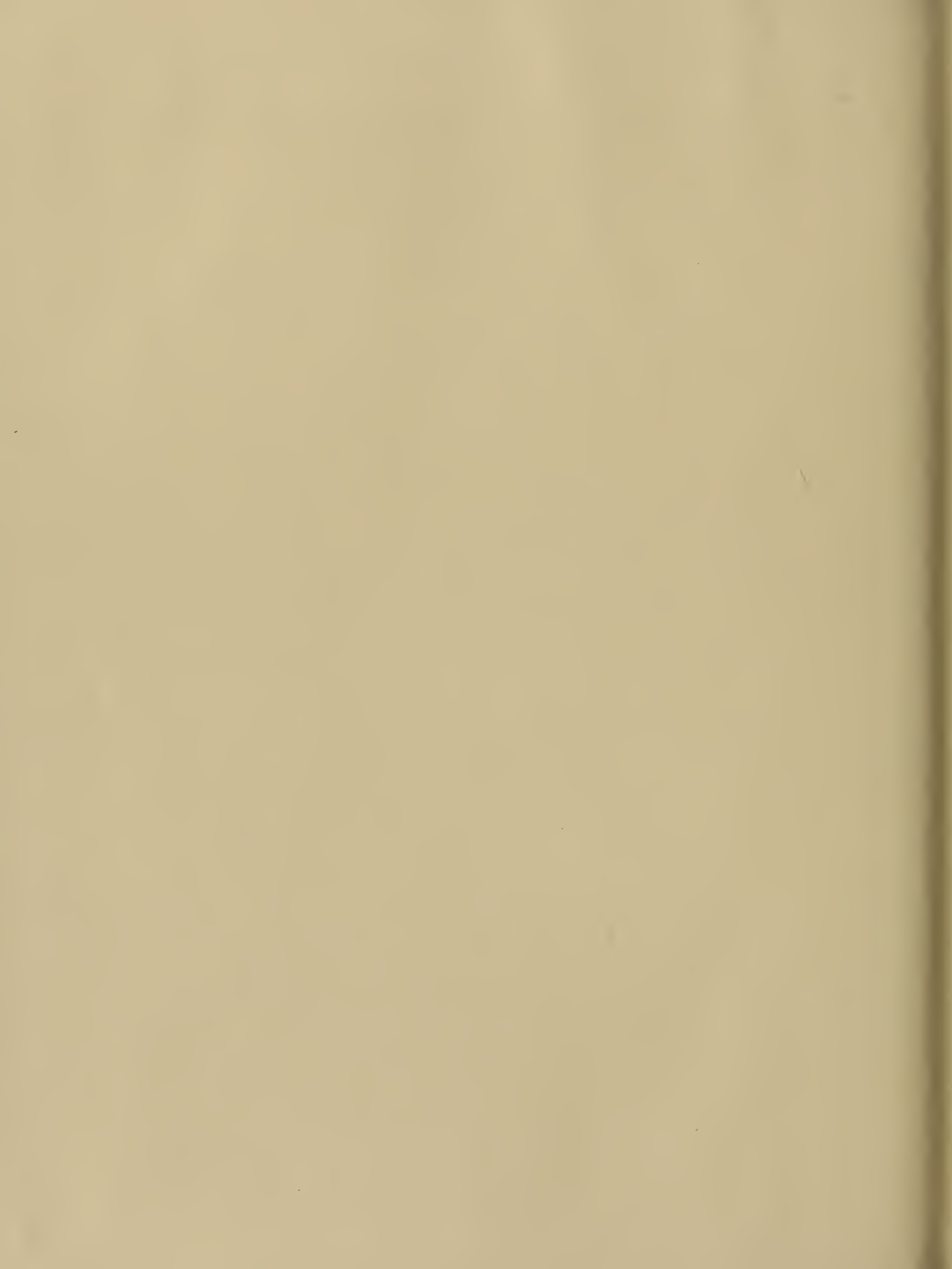
6. Barber: Next, please. How would you like it?
John: Trim it close on the sides and back, but don't take much off the top.
Barber: Yes sir..... Is that how you like it?
John: Yes, that's fine.
Barber: Do you want some water on it?
John: No thank you.
- Mary: There's a spot on the sleeve. Can you take it out?
Clerk: Yes, we can take it out.
Mary: There's a rip in the skirt of the dress. Can you fix it?
Clerk: Yes, we can fix it.
Mary: When can it be ready?
Clerk: About Wednesday. Here's your receipt.
Mary: Thank you.
7. A: Where are you going after dinner?
B: I might go to the movies. Where are you going?
A: I'm going to the library. I must study.
B: I can go to the movies tomorrow. May I go to the library with you?
A: Yes.

II. Practice conversations on the following subjects:

1. You are walking across the park. You encounter:
 - a) a professor that you know
 - b) your roommate.
2. You are introduced to a new student from Peru. Ask him about where he comes from and where he is living in Ann Arbor.
3. You are leaving the theater with two friends. You meet a girl that you know. You introduce your friends.
4. You conduct a friend who has recently arrived from Venezuela into a cafeteria for breakfast, telling him about the menu. Try to use always, usually, sometimes, often, in the morning, etc.
5. You invite your friend to lunch at a hotel. Order a complete lunch for two, consulting your friend.
6. You go to a clothing store and buy something. Ask the clerk about colors and prices. Pay for it and get change.
7. You meet a friend. He wants to know how you usually spend your day. Tell him, using every day, every hour, all day, all morning and other phrases of this type.
8. You go to the bank and cash a check. You tell the clerk that you want five dollars in change. You meet a friend who asks you if you have change for 50 cents.

9. You go to the cleaner with some clothes to be cleaned and mended.
10. You go to the barber shop for a hair cut.
11. Tell what you did yesterday, using the words before, after, afterwards, until, from, etc.
12. Tell about a trip you made to State Street. Tell how you went there and what you did, using words like opposite, across, along, through, etc.
13. Tell a friend about a girl or boy you met at the reception. Give a clear description of the person.







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